

**A FRAMEWORK FOR THE EVALUATION OF
AN INTERNATIONAL GRADUATE
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM
FOR NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION LEADERS**

by

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DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained in therein is my own, original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'M. J. van der Linde', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Signature:

Date: October 15, 2009

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ABSTRACT

While nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have existed for several hundred years, their recent surge was largely fueled by several key factors. Firstly, government corruption caused donor agencies to see NGOs as safer investments for their aid portfolios. Secondly, the end of the Cold War fostered growth in development in former Soviet satellite nations. Thirdly, the United Nation's (UN) establishment of the Millennium Development Goals galvanized the globe to address indicators critical to combating extreme poverty. Vast amounts of charitable capital combined with donors' increasing expectations of performance to spark serious interest in the topics of NGO efficiency, accountability and effectiveness. These topics are foundational to NGO mission accomplishment and have contributed to a global expansion of academic programs in NGO management.

The examination of a forerunner of NGO management education helped address the void of scholarship concerning NGO-related academic program effectiveness. The economic development program at Eastern University (US) was created in 1984 as one of the world's first MBA programs designed to train entrepreneurs for service to distressed communities. The program quickly grew to over one hundred students and then foundered due to frequent personnel transition, curricular change, mission drift and a lack of investment in relational marketing and outreach. This prompted an administrative intervention in 2002. In 2007, five years into the economic development program's reinvention process, a qualitative evaluation determined whether all the essential elements of the program were in place and operating in accordance with the plans put forth in 2002. The knowledge generated by this research will strengthen institutions that serve NGOs and extend the abilities of NGO leaders to fulfill their missions.

The following specific aims were established and achieved. Firstly, an analysis of the factors contributing to the management challenges facing the leaders of international NGOs was presented. Secondly, a qualitative evaluation of an international graduate economic development program for NGO leaders using archival analysis verified through

interviews and focus groups assessed the effectiveness of the 2002 intervention in achieving planned objectives. Thirdly, the research also generated conclusions and recommendations on theoretical, practical and policy-related issues, particularly regarding matters of academic program leadership, curricular development, planning, evaluation, marketing and the distinctive requirements of international programs containing distance delivery components. Fourthly, the research enriched the scholarly conversation in the NGO and academic communities in substantive ways, including two presentations at international conferences and publication in a peer-reviewed journal.

Theoretical, practical and policy conclusions were generated as research outcomes and included a theoretical framework for the implementation and evaluation of an international graduate economic development MBA for NGO leaders. The conclusions generated four recommendations for the host institution and others with similar missions and aspirations. The recommendations stated that these kinds of programs should: commit to the discipline of multi-year planning and evaluation, appoint well-qualified faculty to lead them, implement and resource relationship-based marketing plans that engage program alumni, and excel at delivering cross-cultural, highly accessible learning.

OPSOMMING

Nieregeringsorganisasies (NRO's) bestaan al vir baie honderde jare. In die onlangse verlede is die belangrikheid en groei daarvan deur verskeie faktore aangevuur. Ten eerste het skenkerorganisasies nieregeringsorganisasies toenemend begin beskou as veiliger beleggers vir hulle hulpfondse as die toenemende korrupsie van regerings. Tweedens het die einde van die Koue Oorlog die groei en ontwikkeling van vorige Sowjet- satellietstate gestimuleer. Derdens het die Verenigde Volkeorganisasie (VVO) met die daarstelling van die milleniumontwikkelingsdoelstellings die wêreld saamgesnoer in hulle pogings om armoede te beveg. Groot bedrae welsynskapitaal en die daarmee gepaardgaande hoër prestasieverwagtinge van skenkers het daartoe bygedra dat daar groter belangstelling was in die effektiwiteit, doeltreffendheid en toerekenbaarheid van nieregeringsorganisasies. Laasgenoemde drie temas is fundamenteel tot die uitlewing van nieregeringsorganisasies se missies en dit het daartoe bygedra dat daar 'n wêreldwye toename in akademiese programme oor die leierskap en bestuur van nieregeringsorganisasies was.

Navorsing oor een van die pioniers op die gebied van leierskap en bestuursopleiding vir nie-regeringsorganisasies het daartoe bygedra om hierdie leemte in die akademieskap van nie-regeringsorganisasies se progradeffektiwiteit te oorbrug. Die ekonomiese ontwikkelings-program aan die Eastern University in die VSA is in 1984 as een van die wêreld se eerste MBA-programme wat ontwerp is om entrepreneurs vir dienslewering aan benadeelde gemeenskappe op te lei, in die lewe geroep. Die program was baie gewild en het vinnig gegroei en gou was daar meer as 'n honderd ingeskrewe studente. As gevolg van verskeie faktore, waaronder gereelde personeel- en leierskapwisseling, kurrikulumwysigings, missieverskuiwing (*mission drift*) en onvoldoende investering in bemarking en uitreikprogramme, het die program se gewildheid afgeneem. Hierdie afname in die gewildheid van die program het inmenging/intervensie deur die universiteitsbestuur in 2002 genoodsaak. In 2007, vyf jaar nadat die universiteitsbestuur die intervensie geïnisieer het, is deur middel van 'n kwalitatiewe evaluering vasgestel of al die noodsaaklike elemente van die program toegepas is volgens die intervensieprogram wat in 2002 geïnisieer is. Die kennis wat deur hierdie navorsing gegenereer is, sal

universiteite en instellings wat nieregeringsorganisasies ondersteun, versterk en die leiers van nieregeringsorganisasies in staat stel om hulle missies uit te leef.

Verskeie doelstellings is met die navorsing nagestreef en bereik. Eerstens is die faktore wat bydra tot die uitdagings vir die leierskap van internasionale nieregeringsorganisasies geanaliseer en aangebied. Tweedens is 'n kwalitatiewe evaluering van 'n internasionale nagraadse ekonomiese ontwikkelingsprogram uitgevoer. Argivale materiaal is geanaliseer en, gerugsteun deur inligting wat verkry is uit onderhoude en fokusgroepe, is die effektiwiteit van die 2002-intervensie bepaal. Derdens is teoretiese, praktiese en beleidsgevolgtrekkings en aanbevelings gegenereer. Hierdie gevolgtrekkings en aanbevelings is veral toegespits op leierskap vir akademiese programme, kurrikulumontwikkeling, beplanning, evaluering, bemaking en die eiesoortige eise wat afstandsonderrigprogramme stel. Vierdens het die navorsing die akademiese gesprek en die akademiese en nieregeringsorganisasies op verskeie betekenisvolle maniere verryk. Onder andere is twee aanbiedinge by internasionale konferensies gedoen en is 'n artikel in 'n eweknie-beoordeelde tydskrif gepubliseer.

Teoretiese, praktiese en beleidsgevolgtrekkings is daargestel en dit sluit onder andere 'n teoretiese raamwerk vir die implementering en evaluering van 'n internasionale MBA-nagraadse ekonomiese ontwikkelingsprogram vir leiers van nieregeringsorganisasies in. Die gevolgtrekkings het gelei tot vier aanbevelings vir die gasheerinstelling en ander instellings met soortgelyke missies en aspirasies. Die aanbevelings sluit onder andere in dat instellings wat soortgelyke programme aanbied, hulle moet verbind tot multijaarbeplanning en -evaluering, dat hulle bekwame akademici as leiers moet aanstel, dat hulle brongebaseerde bemakingsplanne moet implementeer en dat hulle akademiese personeel moet aanstel wat besonder goed toegerus is in die aanbieding van kruiskulturele toeganklike leerprogramme.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Marie F. Ridington, who I lost in the middle of my doctoral journey. I am especially mindful of her today, on which she would have celebrated her sixtieth wedding anniversary. Mom expressed her life and faith through creative words and loving investment in others. I remain eternally grateful to her for sharing those gifts with me.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 BACKGROUND AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PROBLEM

The last quarter century has witnessed dramatic growth of social sector institutions, otherwise known as *non-governmental organizations* (NGOs). While NGOs have existed in one form or another for two centuries, their escalations in recent years was the result of several major historic developments (Lewis, 2001). Firstly, the crippling impact of government corruption on development outcomes caused donor agencies and governments to see NGOs as attractive alternatives for their aid and development investments (Chang, 2005). Secondly, the end of the Soviet Union (USSR) revealed a staggering need for development investment in the former Soviet satellite nations of Eastern Europe, while simultaneously Western nations and donors rushed to fill the resultant geopolitical vacuum in countries formerly influenced by the USSR with goodwill through funding NGOs as their fiduciary agents (Herman, 2005). The third key factor enlarging the footprint of NGOs as the twentieth century ended was the development of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the United Nations (UN), which unified nations around addressing (and funding) twenty indicators seen as critical to lifting those living in extreme poverty (Shetty, 2005).

The transfer of wealth to NGOs during the final decade of the twentieth century was unprecedented. Between 1992 and 2001, international NGOs realized a near quadrupling of income while the number of international NGOs engaged in development work doubled (Herman, 2005). This resulted in a global not-for-profit sector worth more than one trillion US dollars and employing more than nineteen billion people (SustainAbility, 2005).

With increased wealth came increased expectations from donors and the public, and many NGOs struggled to make the transition from informal social service providers to more formal, corporate-like organizations (Dichter, 2005). The roles of NGOs and their

leaders shifted dramatically during the last quarter century, and NGOs that failed to transition became ineffective or worse fell prey to corrupt practices, which resulted in losses of human, financial and reputational capital (Gibelman and Gelman, 2004). Perhaps the threat of these losses caused more NGOs to realize their need for advanced training to meet the new demands of their elevated positions.

With the significant growth of the NGO sector over the last twenty-five years came concomitant growth in the number of leadership training opportunities and programs for those engaged in or aspiring to lead these organizations (Mirabella, 2007). Globally, more than three-hundred universities and colleges offer both formal degrees and non-formal training programs in development or disciplines designed to address the needs of NGO leaders. However, access remains an issue for those in developing nations (Mirabella, Gemelli, Malcolm and Berger, 2007) and those lacking prior management-related coursework (Lukes, Lutesova and Stephan, 2006).

Perhaps a greater risk factor, however, is the paucity of scholarship on the effectiveness of leadership education programs purporting to serve the NGO sector. A plurality of studies has endeavored to understand the value of the MBA for leadership preparation in for-profit business organizations (Braunstein, 2002; Mellahi, 2000; Kretovics, 1999). The same quest has not been true of NGO education, as Chang (2005:441) reports:

As more NGO people are devoting themselves to working in underdeveloped foreign lands, little research has been done on how to prepare these corps to work in a different culture and environment. Training for those NGO international workers is critical because it does not merely help improve service quality for local people; equally important, it can help these service providers understand how to maintain safety, prevent accidents, and avoid cultural conflicts.

Beyond identifying how increased higher education options accelerate economic development (Asian Development Bank, 1997; Blakely, 1997; Brockhaus, 1991),

scholarship critical to the development of a body of knowledge relative to the effectiveness of graduate level NGO management programs is lacking. Research-based studies are required to formulate the foundational understanding upon which this rapidly growing sector can ascertain how best to prepare leaders for future effectiveness.

This need has never been more pronounced. Drucker (2006) predicted that non-profit organizations (including NGOs) will become increasingly important in the twenty-first century as they assume responsibilities once thought to be the domain of governments. Anheier and Salamon (1998:1) reinforced this point of view:

Long recognized as instruments of relief and promoters of human rights, such organizations have recently come to be viewed also as critical contributors to basic economic growth and to the broader civic infrastructure.

The limited academic research and publications focused on the distinctive management issues of NGOs in developing countries continues to complicate the construction of a body of knowledge required for fueling effective NGO leadership practices and constructing NGO management curricula. Consequently, organizations such as the one studied herein, must often rely on reinterpreting knowledge from the for-profit sector and observing cases of cross-cultural applications of for-profit principles and practices (Goodall, Warner and Lang, 2004).

In summary, the critically important task of preparing NGO leaders for service in the developing world proceeds somewhat perilously due to the lack of scholarship on the effectiveness of academic NGO management and leadership preparation programs. If NGO leadership education programs are to be increasingly effective, then a body of NGO management knowledge must be created to guide the accelerating opportunities and expectations inherent in that sector. While NGOs and for-profit organizations share certain characteristics, their differences in nature and character require distinctive approaches in leadership and management education. A qualitative evaluation of an established international graduate economic development program for NGO leaders will

provide a theoretical framework for assessing the effectiveness of similarly themed programs serving the NGO community (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and offer recommendations on related curricular issues. The knowledge generated by this study will strengthen the institutions that develop programs serving the NGO community and extend the abilities of NGO leaders to fulfill their missions.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The economic development program at Eastern University (a comprehensive Christian university of nearly four thousand students located near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA) was created in 1984 as one of the world's first faith-based MBA programs designed to train entrepreneurs for service to distressed communities located both in developing nations and American cities. Many at the time, and since, have hailed the MBA in economic development as Eastern University's flagship program for the way in which it expresses the University's vision "as socially active evangelicalism's pre-eminent institution for human, economic and faith-community development" (Eastern University, 2005).

Early program faculty included authors, researchers and practitioners, and corporate executives – all people well known within and beyond the Christian missionary, development and corporate communities. The chief executive officer (CEO) of the global microfinance development organization, Opportunity International, served as the program's first advisory council chair. The reputations of the program's pioneers attracted students from around the globe, resulting in hundreds of alumni performing works of service among the poor in fifty countries and thirty-five American cities (Eastern University, 2007).

In its first decade, the program also seized the attention of several philanthropists, including Fortune 500 CEOs and internationally known financier, Sir John Templeton, whose family established the fledgling program's first endowed professorship. Recent attention was gained with the program's twentieth anniversary, where it was announced

that Eastern University students and graduates had created more than one million jobs in the world's poorest communities and countries (Eastern University, 2004a).

The successful and innovative Economic Development program has not been immune to challenges, however. After enjoying the long tenure of its first director along with strong enrollments, the Economic Development program cycled through four directors in the late 1990s. The graduate recruiter position turned over with similar frequency. In a program which placed a premium on relationship building with its clientele, these transitions resulted in fragmentation, and fueled the perception of program instability in the global marketplace. Predictably, enrollments trended downward.

The retirements and passing of the program's pioneering, high visibility faculty conspired with staff turnover to similarly impact the market's view of the program. Their replacements are impressively credentialed and experienced, but they lack the broad name recognition of those they replaced.

Beyond reputation, these transitions have added challenges to program execution. The relational interruptions between faculty, staff and students contributed to breakdowns in advising, aiding, scheduling and immigration, which translated to students failing to graduate or satisfy placement expectations. As a result, fewer than half of those entering the program typically returned to ply their entrepreneurial skills and manage NGOs in their home countries within an acceptable timeframe (Stapleford, 2008).

Students critiqued the curriculum, with many citing the need for a more global perspective in their classes along with more training opportunities in the program (Kreig, Sisya, Orumbi and Rees, 2001). Additionally, some of the faculty replacing the program's creators challenged the University's original notion that international and urban economic development constituted a single coherent discipline, recommending that the unified approach be divided into separate international and urban degree programs.

In 2000, the Eastern University administration intervened with a two-year study, the purpose of which was to recommend solutions to these challenges with the economic development program. Considering the input gained from internal stakeholders, program alumni and NGO development leaders, the University in 2002 approved the path of action (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002), as follows:

1.2.1 Separation of international and urban economic development programs. The program would be separated into two distinct degrees – international economic development and urban economic development – which would be delivered in distinct contexts by distinct faculties. Additionally, the programs would be staffed by distinct administrators, with the international economic development program being located in the School for Leadership and Development (SLD), and the urban economic development program being located in the School for Social Change (SSC).

1.2.2 Addition of an overseas degree program option. The international economic development program would continue to be offered on campus, but would be augmented by the addition of an overseas-based distance version with limited residencies offered in partnership with indigenous organizations.

1.2.3 Reconfiguration of the economic development program director role. The international development program director position, having been recently vacated, would be reconfigured to satisfy new program realities and be filled as soon as possible.

1.2.4 Use of current, relevant texts and case studies. The faculty would conduct a formal and thorough review of the curriculum in light of changing issues in international development, to ensure the:

- a) availability of updated syllabi;
- b) utilization of updated and relevant texts;
- c) inclusion of case-study methodology in teaching; and
- d) development of case studies as part of the program assignments.

1.2.5 Marketing emphasized for better enrollments. A concentrated marketing effort would be executed for the start-up initiative, made possible by increased budgetary resources for marketing during fiscal year 2002 to prepare for a fiscal year 2003 new program launch.

1.2.6 Establishment of global alumni network. A coordinator would be assigned to establish an international alumni network, a formal network of alumni on each continent that would serve as the voluntary recruitment staff for all SLD programs, including economic development.

1.2.7 Creation of a development research institute. SLD would establish the Institute for the Advancement of Development as a vehicle for creating knowledge and collecting research on best practices in development.

Eastern University's (USA) economic development program was created in 1984 as one of the world's first faith-based MBA programs designed to prepare NGO leaders to serve the world's poor communities. Within its first decade, program enrollments grew to over one hundred students, but they reversed in its second decade due to a number of factors, including programmatic instability and lackluster marketing. In 2002, the Eastern University administration responded with a programmatic intervention, and five years into the economic development program's reinvention process, a qualitative evaluation determined whether all of the essential elements of the program were in place and operating in accordance with the plans put forth in 2002.

1.3 RESEARCH AIM

The aim of this research was to understand the effectiveness of an international MBA in economic development program for NGO leaders. Qualitative research using archival analysis, focus groups and interviews contributed to existing NGO management knowledge by providing a theoretical framework for assessing the effectiveness of similarly themed programs and offering suggestions on related curricular issues.

Research conclusions and recommendations were presented to scholars and practitioners at two international conferences and published in a peer-reviewed journal.

1.3.1 Research question

What do we learn about the effectiveness of an international graduate development program for NGO leaders by examining its reinvention process and ensuing progress? To assess the effectiveness of an international MBA in economic development program, the University's intervention of 2002 and the following five years will be examined through utilizing the following sub-questions.

1.3.2 Research sub-questions

- 1.3.2.1 Were the University's findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?
- 1.3.2.2 Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?
- 1.3.2.3 Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the changed economic development program?

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a logical strategy for gathering required evidence (De Vos, 1998). This study of an educational program falls within the realm of social science research, which Mouton and Marais (1990:7) have defined as "a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it". When researching smaller samples of human beings or executing in-depth investigations, it is most appropriate to embrace an interpretive research paradigm (Cryer, 2000). The interpretive approach to research is employed when the investigator seeks to understand the subjective reasons and meanings that exist behind social developments

(Terre Blanche, 1998). By understanding the reasons and meanings behind the success or failure of implementing change in educational programs, value may be created for others in similar positions of programmatic leadership.

Either quantitative or qualitative approaches may be utilized in social science research. Choosing between them has more to do with the researcher's preferences (for the kinds of data desired) and the project's practical considerations (Denscombe, 2003). The qualitative approach was selected for this study, as its methods of interpreting social reality are adept at gaining in-depth understanding of the effectiveness of interventions and programs. According to Patton (2003:2), "Qualitative methods are often used in evaluations because they tell the program's story by capturing and communicating the participants' stories". Consequently, qualitative evaluations "emphasize context, but not generalizability, as an essential element of meaning" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:538). King, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1988:11) describe how well this approach serves the aim of this research project:

A thorough description of what happened during program implementation can provide program staff and other interested parties information about which features worked and which did not. At the same time such a description creates a historical record of the program that may be of value to others who want to implement it or a similar program.

A qualitative approach to evaluation describes and analyzes the implementation of a process through which a program achieves its outcomes (Kiernan, 2001). Figure 1.1 illustrates the model of planned research for this study.

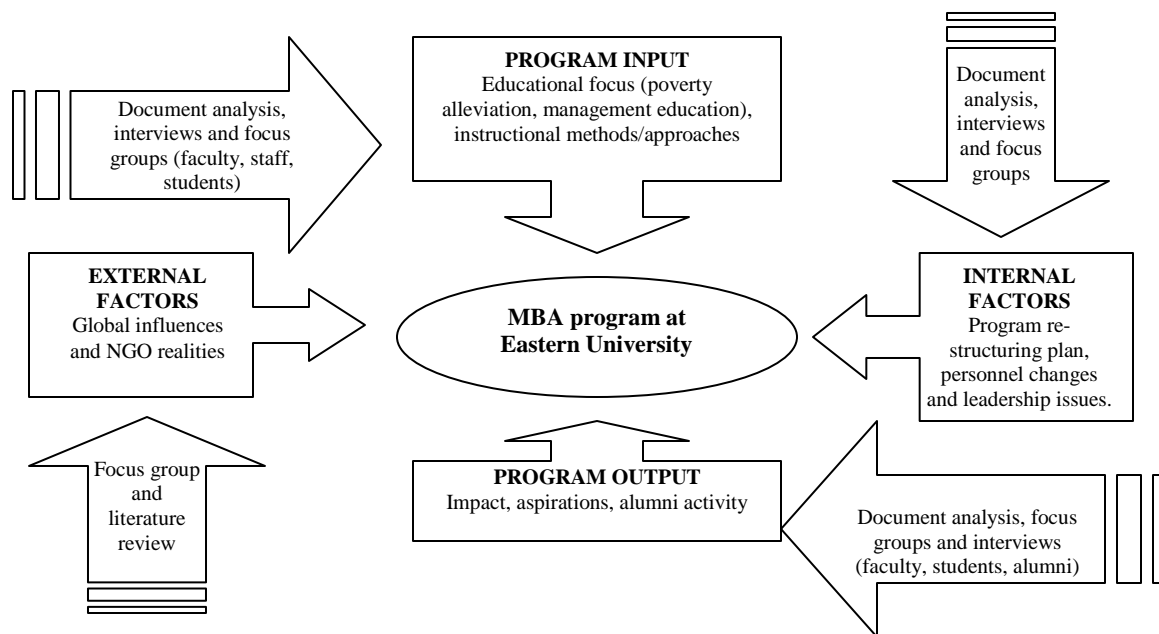


Figure 1.1: A model of planned research

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following research methods were employed in data collection: document analysis, interviews, and focus groups. A problem-oriented approach to document analysis was utilized in this study, meaning that only those documents which responded to the research questions were selected for analysis (Bell, 2005). Care was exercised so that data from documents was captured in a way that safeguarded context. In order to obtain first-hand testimonials concerning program developments and outcomes, data from individual and focus group interviews with program-related staff, faculty, students and alumni were collected on tape recordings and then were converted into transcript form. Interview and focus group transcripts were coded according to key concepts that developed during the work itself (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2001).

Qualitative evaluation research aims to “gather information and generate findings that are useful”, meaning that understandings unearthed concerning program processes and outcomes are useful to those who must make decisions about similar programs (Patton,

2003:2). Validity and reliability were enhanced by employing multiple methods of data collection, including focus groups and individual interviews, as well as analysis of existing documentary sources. By producing greater quantities of data from different sources focused on a specific target, the multi-method approach allowed findings to be corroborated (Denscombe, 2003). This process, also known as triangulation, refers to the practice of triangulating to a shared observation from the disparate points of multiple research methods. Triangulation enhances a study's transferability by corroborating, elaborating and illuminating the research (De Vos, 1998). The greater the sources from which that shared point is located, the greater is the validity of the findings.

The archival documents employed different research methods, including previously generated focus group and survey results. Records contained alumni surveys indicating their career placement and satisfaction with the program. Several groups of international students participated in focus groups nearly a decade apart to assess the program's attentiveness to their needs. Also included in the archives were records of phone surveys with fourteen NGO organizations and a listening group on the needs of NGOs with a half dozen NGO leaders.

Interviews with eight current and former MBA in economic development staff and administrators provided input on proposed program changes and their progress to date. Interviews with twenty-six current students helped assess their satisfaction with program changes, while twenty-one alumni interviews supplied input concerning whether their professional service aligned with program objectives.

Finally, three focus groups were employed in order to gain data relevant to research objectives. Two groups containing six staff and faculty were convened in order to get a sense of the program's past and present. The third group included five current economic development students from the US-based program.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

The scope of this research included the international graduate program in economic development at Eastern University over the five-year period, dating from 2002 through 2007. *Former* students and alumni represented those who graduated from the program that existed prior to the implementation of program changes in 2002. *Current* students and alumni were considered to be those who enrolled in and/or graduated from the newly revised program, which commenced during the fall semester of 2002.

1.7 TARGET GROUP(S) AND MATERIAL USED FOR THE RESEARCH

The key informants for this study were twenty-four current economic development students, twenty-one current (recent program) alumni, and twelve current program faculty, staff and administrators. Also included was archival, documentary input reflecting the perceptions of many former faculty, staff, advisors, students and alumni, which helped place current findings in their proper historical context.

1.8 INTENDED OUTCOMES

Academic scholarship was augmented with new knowledge on the implementation of NGO-focused graduate management education. A framework for evaluating NGO academic program implementation was created. Research conclusions and recommendations were disseminated through two presentations at international conferences in the United States and Nicaragua, and publication in a peer-reviewed, scholarly journal based at Oxford, United Kingdom. Finally, the program being studied will be improved as a result of findings and conclusions.

1.9 RELATED LITERATURE

Nobel laureate and Harvard economist Sen (2001) proclaimed that poverty is an ahistorical reality – that for all our modern progress it remains as pervasive today as it has ever been. Overcoming these problems, Sen concluded, is the work of development.

After government, development in impoverished communities typically falls to the NGOs, which come in all shapes and sizes (Martens, 2002). NGOs range from voluntary organizations to enterprises rivaling some countries' largest for-profit organizations. NGOs exist to address social problems, such as poverty, illiteracy, disease, unemployment, human rights abuses, disempowerment, lack of education, environmental degradation and natural disasters (World Bank, 2009; Leonard, 2006; Lewis, 2001).

The NGO sector has grown dramatically in the last quarter century as has the number of academic programs serving it. Despite finding development studies in the curricula of some of the world's finest institutions of higher learning (including Oxford, Harvard, Johns Hopkins and Geneva), little work has been done to build an established discipline of NGO management knowledge. It seems, however, that this may be beginning to change.

Holzbaur (2005) reported on the increasing involvement of German universities in encouraging innovation and entrepreneurship leading to sustainable economic development. These universities' civic engagement initiatives include management education, modeling and research. Others have claimed that universities must focus more attention and resources on the compelling needs of contemporary society or risk becoming increasingly irrelevant (Palmer, 2005). The stated purpose of higher education reform in South Africa is the establishment of a system that contributes to the "social, economic and political development of South African society" (Higgs, 2004; Waghid, 2004; Fehnel, 2002). Initiatives in collaborative service-learning with NGOs have begun to spark this outward movement in South Africa (Palmer, 2005; Van Rensburg, 2004).

Joint higher education/NGO efforts, even at their current modest levels, may prove to create movement toward greater NGO/university collaboration.

While NGO-related scholarship is on the ascent, still missing from the research is evidence of effectiveness studies relating to academic programs that prepare NGO leaders, as previously mentioned. Also included in the void is scholarship addressing the appropriateness of the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree for preparing NGO leaders. MBA research focuses on the business program's effectiveness preparing for-profit leaders, which was the degree's original purpose (Duff, 2003). However, MBAs are increasingly being reshaped to address the needs of leaders in government, health care and social sector or nongovernmental organizations (Kleiman and Kass, 2007). Scholarship is necessary to assess and direct this movement, as the traditional MBA, despite its allure, is incapable of addressing the distinct needs of nongovernmental organizations without significant alteration. Chang (2005:448) elaborates on this:

In a nonprofit organization, a changing work environment, the often part-time nature of the professional staff, the scarcity of budgetary resources, and the inherent limitations of the volunteer role make for a climate of “impermanence and improvisation” (Hutchinson and Quartaro in Chang, 2005). Thus there are limits to the extent to which voluntary organizations can follow the same standards as profit organizations.

This opinion is reinforced, if stated differently, in a recent report by South Africa's Council on Higher Education, which stated that for-profit-oriented MBAs worldwide seem limited in “educating their graduates only in the relatively narrow shareholder value ideology”, which represents a clear disconnect with the concerns of NGOs (in Blackmur, 2007:603).

Growing in popularity in the developing world are MBAs and other graduate degree programs that are delivered by some means of distance education. Initial skepticism in the academic community has not quelled the effectiveness of this approach in delivering

education to adult learners who cannot separate from their employment (Bocci, Eastman and Swift, 2004). Distance learning has also distinguished itself as a means of traversing the digital divide between rich and poor by negating geographic boundaries that separated many millions of people from educational opportunity (Weigel, 2002).

1.10 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

According to Terre Blanche (1998), a conceptual framework helps to refine a research problem. It also serves as an orientation for gathering facts “once it specifies the types of facts to be systematically observed”. Miles and Huberman (1994) view a conceptual framework as an exploratory device which explains the main things to be studied – the key factors, constructs or variables and the presumed relationships among them.

The phenomenon studied in this research was the international MBA program of economic development at Eastern University. The aim of this research was to assess the effectiveness of the MBA program as redesigned in 2002 and executed during the following five years concluding in 2007. The variables that interact with the program are identified in Figure 1.2.

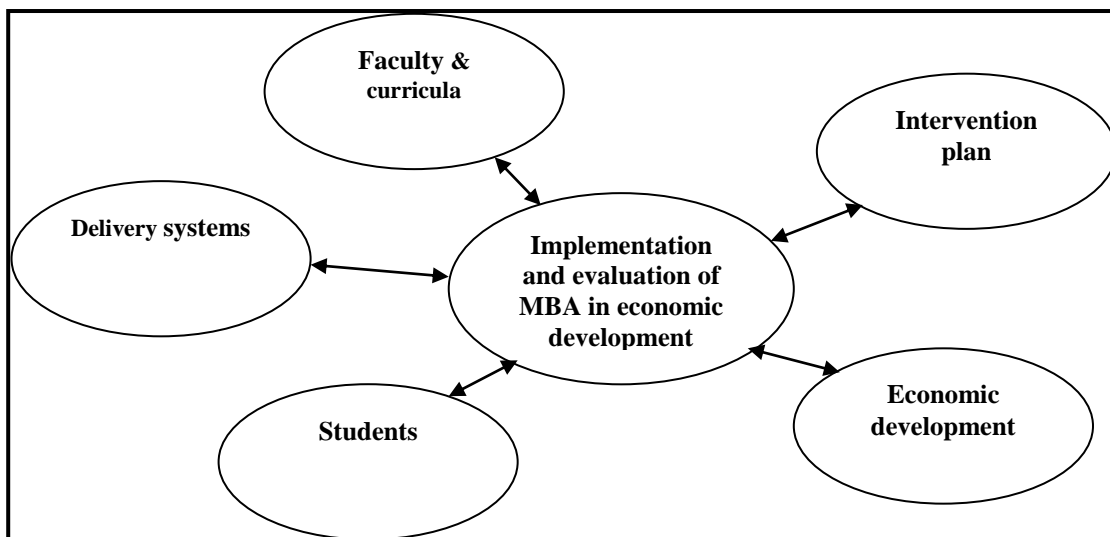


Figure 1.2: Conceptual framework

The MBA program's focus is on strengthening the effectiveness of economic development NGOs through building management capacity, which "is the lifeblood of all organizations, irrespective of whether they are private entities, public agencies, not-for-profit concerns or non-governmental varieties" (James, 1998:229). Some of the distinctive language used to describe this program is elaborated upon in the following section.

1.11 CONCEPTS CLARIFICATION

The acronyms, concepts and terms referenced in this study merit definition and description. The following explanations are offered to assure clarity of understanding between researcher and reader.

1.11.1 NGO is an acronym for *non-governmental organization*, which in the broadest possible sense means an organization which is other than for-profit or governmental. The World Bank defines NGOs as "private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development" (World Bank, 2005a). The NGO sector has also variously been called the *social-sector*, *third sector*, *non-profit sector*, and *private, voluntary sector* because organizational missions and values are related to the improvement of life and society rather than to investors or taxpayers.

1.11.2 MBA is an acronym for *Master of Business Administration*, the degree born in America, adopted in Europe, and now globally available, which is perceived to be the passport into management in the for-profit sector (Baruch and Leeming, 2001). While MBAs seek to prepare their graduates with the skills and competencies required for leading business organizations, they remain challenged by non-Western applications (Mellahi, 2000). Eastern University offers several MBA programs. The fast-track MBA is designed for adult students in the US for-profit sector and is offered on campus and in corporate settings. The health administration MBA is designed for administrators of US health-care facilities and is offered in both campus and health-care facility-based settings.

The MBA in economic development is designed for aspiring and established NGO leaders and is offered on campus or in a distance program with limited residencies held annually in Africa and prospectively in Asia.

1.11.3 Economic development is a term used to describe the study of investments necessary to improve the conditions of a community or country. It can possess different meanings in any of the three social sectors. For example, a casino or resort hotel can satisfy the definition in the for-profit world, and a new bridge or sports stadium can do the same in the public sector. In the case of the NGO sector, however, economic development is typically more focused on the basic needs of communities. For example, studies have shown that only a fraction of the four billion people who live on less than \$1 400 annually have access to basic financial services (World Bank, 2005b). Economic development could include the provision of small loans and training to help the disadvantaged start small businesses. Also included in economic development could be initiatives: to create housing through the creative use of public/private/loan funds; to provide facilities for clean water and sewage treatment; and to build institutions such as banks, schools, community centers and health clinics. While not considered “economic” in the narrowest sense, research has demonstrated that all these elements of society are essential to economic advancement of communities and individuals (Meier and Rauch, 2000).

1.11.4 Developing nations references those countries which might be called “underdeveloped” by some or “poor” by others. These countries were formerly known as Third World or two-thirds world nations. While the United Nations is understandably reluctant to express a judgment about which nations are in the developing process (Magarinos, 2005), those at the lower end of the globe’s economic continuum predominantly exist in the southern hemisphere or near the equator. While developed countries are more advanced, they also include socio-economic segments, regions or populations within their borders that reflect many of the same challenges that characterize developing nations.

1.11.5 Distance learning is defined as receiving education through Internet-based remote services and can include synchronous or asynchronous learning (Hollenbeck, Zinkhan and French, 2005). Approaches vary from the purely virtual (where all interaction is mediated by technology) to hybrid approaches that combine the technological approach with brief, focused and regularly scheduled residencies. The Eastern University MBA distance option is an example of the latter approach.

1.12 ETHICAL STATEMENT

By agreeing to the terms of and signing “consent” (Appendix 1) and “permission to audiotape” forms (Appendix 12), participants were assured of confidentiality throughout the research process and reporting of the results. Additionally, they were protected from being identified by omitting names from the research instruments and the reporting of results.

1.13 GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The general structure of the research comprises six chapters, of which Chapter One provides background and context to the study. This chapter includes the motivation for the research; a description of the problem; the research questions, objective, design, methodology, scope and target groups; the outcomes; related literature; conceptual framework; concepts clarification; and an ethical statement.

Chapter Two represents part one of a review of the literature that surveys and critiques existing scholarship relating to non-governmental organizations (NGOs), their leaders’ management needs, the challenges of addressing those needs and the variety (and adequacy) of existing educational resources. Sections include NGOs and the need for management education; the challenges of educating NGO managers; the roles of development NGOs and implications for management education; the competencies required by development NGO leaders; and economic development and higher education.

Chapter Three continues with part two of the literature review. The first section of Chapter Three examines global MBA programs in their many diverse applications as responses to the management needs of development NGO leaders. The second section describes the program that was the focus of this research, the Eastern University MBA in economic development, one of the older economic development graduate programs in existence, now in its twenty-fifth year. A recounting of the history, curriculum, delivery system, student and alumni body and the intervention plan of 2002 provided the context for research.

Chapter Four outlines the methodological orientation of the research and includes the following sections: research approach; qualitative research; interpretive paradigm; research design; program evaluation; research questions; methodology; data collection; document analysis; interviews; focus groups; target group sampling; data analysis; data presentation; validity and reliability; triangulation; and ethical considerations.

Chapter Five includes the presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings. Document analysis, interviews and focus groups were conducted in order to answer three research questions. A summary of the questions, research methods and data samples are included in the following sections: document analysis; interviews; focus groups; integration of findings.

Finally, the purpose of Chapter Six is to synthesize the research, draw conclusions and offer recommendations. The chapter's subsections include the research synthesis, research outcomes; research design and methodology; limitations of research; and research conclusions and recommendations.

1.14 SUMMARY

This chapter described the problem and motivation of the research along with research aims, questions, sub-questions, design, methodology and scope. Also discussed were the target groups and materials used, intended outcomes and conceptual framework. Finally,

sections on concept clarification, ethics and general structure of the research report completed the chapter. The next chapter (Chapter Two) is the first portion of a two-part literature review, and centers on surveying and synthesizing existing scholarship relating to non-governmental organizations (NGOs), their leaders' management needs, the challenges of addressing those needs and the variety (and adequacy) of existing educational resources.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW, PART ONE

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this literature review is to discuss and critique existing scholarship relating to non-governmental organizations (NGOs), their leaders' management needs, the challenges of addressing those needs and the variety (and adequacy) of existing educational resources. This two-part literature review combines a broad understanding of the field of nongovernmental organizations with a specialized orientation toward conceptualizing a theoretical framework for evaluating an MBA in economic development for NGO leaders. This approach advances the field of development education by addressing an ill-defined practical and theoretical problem, which is evinced in the lack of scholarship concerning the effectiveness of NGO leadership-related academic programs. Development education thought and practice will be enriched accordingly.

The quickening pace of scholarly production on NGOs in the last twenty years has begun to compensate for the scarcity of publication prior to the mid-1980s. Because NGO interest has not yet evolved into a new discipline, historicity is lacking while currency of information grows (Anheier and Salamon, 1998). The lack of discipline-specific information dictated a multidisciplinary approach to information gathering that included study in both education and business disciplines.

The first section of the literature review addresses the origin, history, nature and purpose of NGOs. It charts the long history of NGOs with a particular emphasis on their steep ascent in recent years and the conditions contributing to that development. While enjoying great variety in purpose, evidence is offered demonstrating economic development as a primary focus of NGOs.

The second section of the literature review explores different kinds of NGOs and the evolution of the roles of development-oriented NGOs in particular. It reveals how NGOs differ hemispherically, or between the developed and developing worlds. It surveys the many different acronyms by which NGOs are characterized. The section concludes with a consideration of both the micro- and macro-oriented roles of NGOs and the complexity of their engagement in communities and countries.

The third section of the literature review assesses the significant issues facing contemporary development NGOs and their managers. A key theme that courses throughout the literature in that regard is the accelerating transition of aid and responsibility for social services from governments to NGOs. Considered as well are the impact of this global movement on NGOs and the changing expectations of their managers. An additional, significant issue for NGOs is the coalescence of the global community around the UN's Millennium Goals as defining development activity in future years. This major shift has significant implications for NGO managers, especially regarding how they will change their organizations to satisfy entirely new sets of assumptions, expectations and mandates.

The fourth section of the literature review presents information on the need for and barriers to learning in NGOs. Considered are the varied complexities of the contexts in which NGOs operate and the challenges they present to management education. The section continues by identifying a near consensus in the literature concerning the need for NGOs to embrace a culture of learning. Also in view are the roles of finances and worldview as barriers to NGO learning. Transitioning from that point of view, it is logical to transition to NGO leaders' management needs and educational responses, which are covered in the following two sections.

The fifth section of the literature review delves more deeply into the management issues and training needs of global NGO leaders. Links are considered between the lack of learning environments for NGO managers and their failures. Other requirements are considered as the NGO management role is more clearly defined and critical issues

described. The section concludes with a list of training needs described in the literature as essential for successful NGO management.

The sixth section of the literature review focuses specifically on economic development education. While management education may have a long and distinguished history, scholarship reveals that NGO-focused education is a relatively recent phenomenon and has grown in a coordinated fashion with the overall sector's maturation. An analysis of economic development around the globe establishes areas of strength and weakness while distinguishing educational approaches in the developing world from those in Europe and the United States. Also discussed is how the lack of geographical propinquity, the restricted access to resources and technology, the confines of cultural and religious mores and folkways, and the fluid nature of NGO funding all contribute to the challenges in deriving global solutions to NGO managers' educational requirements.

The literature review begins with a consideration of the development of NGOs as they were birthed and now operate in accordance with the purposes to which they have been entrusted.

2.2 THE ORIGIN, HISTORY, ROLES AND ACTIVITIES OF NGOS

The term *nongovernmental organization* (NGO) was first popularized in United Nations documents, beginning in 1945 (Chang, 2005). Originally, the term referred to international organizations that augmented governments' abilities to respond to humanitarian crises (Mercer, 2002). However, coining the term *NGO* in 1945 should not be confused with the genesis of organizations that fulfilled such purposes.

2.2.1 The origin and history of NGOs

While the amount of attention they are now receiving is unprecedented, Lewis (2001) informs us that NGOs, as well as their antecedents, have been around for two centuries. The genesis of NGOs outside of government was inspired by a collection of inclinations.

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, colonial powers had little desire to underwrite governmental social service programs in their colonies. Consequently, charitable organizations arose in the colonizing nations to help address the needs of colonized peoples (Manji and O’Coill, 2005). Mostly birthed due to a sense of religious or altruistic responsibility, such missionary and charitable organizations built schools, hospitals, and set up human rights movements while also establishing worshipping communities as a means of responding to perceived unmet human need. Britain’s William Carey exemplified this in his work in India as a missionary who generated profound social impacts, especially in women’s rights, labor issues and the beginnings of that country’s modern legal system (Meneses, 2007). In addition to spiritual inclination, NGOs were created for other private purposes. From the outset of the industrial revolution through much of the twentieth century, individual philanthropy has been perceived as an important means of addressing the problems associated with the growing wealth gap between rich and poor in advanced nations. At the end of the nineteenth century, nearly one third of London’s population was mired in deep poverty even as industrial leaders amassed vast fortunes. Their private expenditures and the organizations they funded to alleviate poverty, far outstripped governmental outlays for social services at the time (Manji and O’Coill, 2005).

Early NGOs were typically issue-oriented associations having to do with the abolition of the slave trade, the peace movement, labor rights, free trade, suffrage, human rights, narcotics and nature. In the early part of the twentieth century, with the creation of the League of Nations after World War I, these began to take on more of an international character. The structure of the League formally invited engagement from government, business and community organizations. At that time, “NGOs began to move from being outsiders bringing issues to the international agenda to insiders working with governments on international problems” (Lewis, 2001:40). However, in mid-century, after World War II, the relative weakness of the newly established United Nations and its occupation with the Cold War reversed that, with NGOs being assigned out to a sub-council and lacking a powerful platform. Since the 1970s, however, NGOs in the West have been taking on more engaged roles with governments, demanding and securing the

ability to voice concerns on issues while also participating in environmental, human rights, human population, civil society and economic development activities.

Figure 2.1 (on the following page) demonstrates the evolving history NGOs and governments have realized in addressing humanitarian problems and development issues. The gap in the relationship between NGOs and governments has waxed and waned, eventually narrowing over time, as the burden for human development has similarly shifted. Prior to the twentieth century, NGOs and governments operated independently from each other, with NGOs carrying the greater burden for providing public welfare. The horrors of World War I and its aftermath helped forge more mutuality between NGOs and governments, indicated by a shared boundary between the two sectors. Perhaps, as governments assumed responsibility for post-war recovery and mediation, they recognized the expertise NGOs had independently developed, and welcomed their input and counsel. Over the following decades, the majority of the burden for social development continued its swing toward governments so that by the mid-20th century, the relationship between them and NGOs had become more strained. Demonstrated in Figure 2.1 by separated borders, this suggests that the swing of the pendulum in the direction of governments reversed their perceived need of mutuality with NGOs. By the end of the century, however, resources and the willingness to interact tipped back again as governments and NGOs were tossed together into resource-sharing partnerships. Required by donors and the aggressive expectations of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, this new paradigm is demonstrated in Figure 2.1 by layering an overlapping arrow on the two sectors signifying their shared activity toward a common goal.

The development of NGOs was contexted and highly flavored by significant influences and events in the regions where they developed. In Latin American, Escobar (1997) concluded that the growth of NGOs had much to do with the influence of the Catholic Church (especially as the liberation theology movement took shape and hold, beginning in the 1960s with its commitment to the poor) and the growth of the Protestant

movement. Brazilian Paolo Freire (1970) was also hugely influential with his *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, which argued for a new approach to educating the poor for organized community action resulting in liberation and change. Freire's approach became foundational for many NGOs throughout Latin America and the wider world.

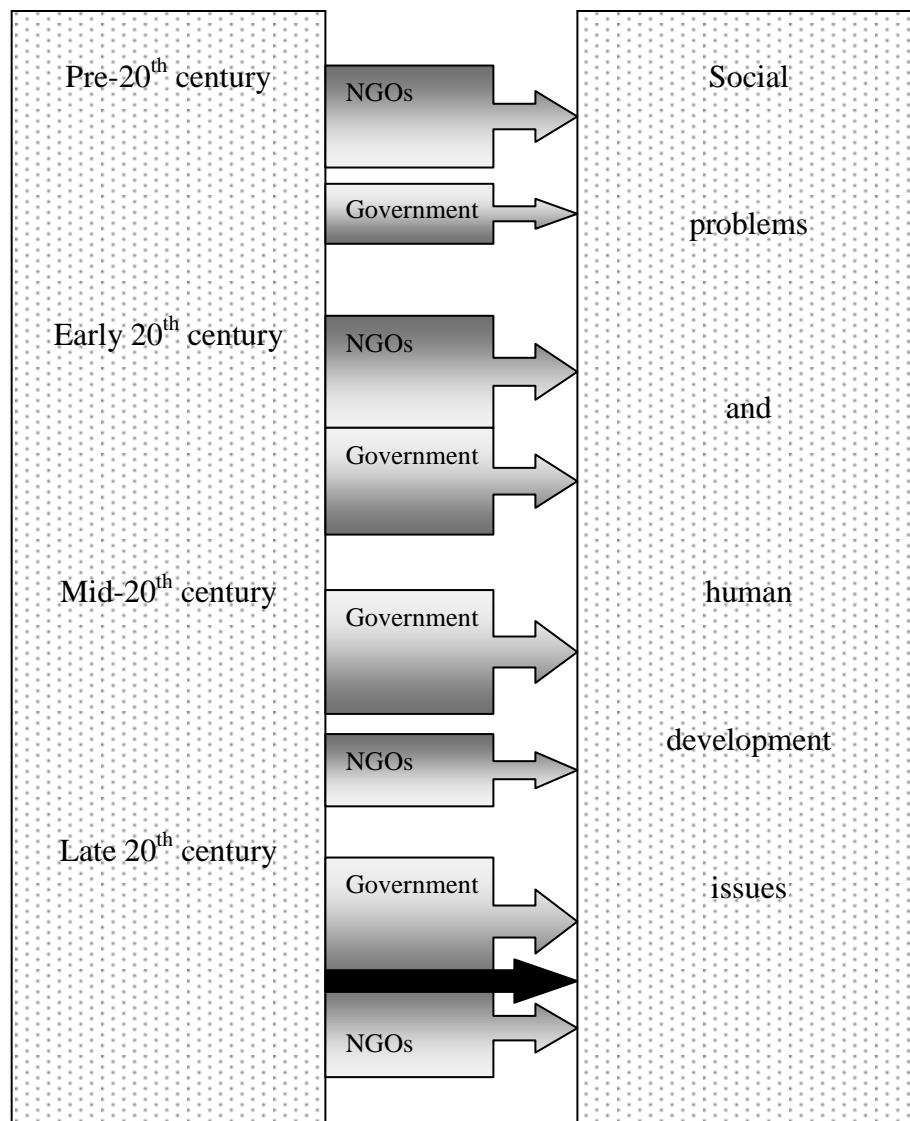


Figure 2.1: Evolving stages of relatedness between NGOs and governments

In South Asia, Sen (1992) reported that it was the influence of such disparate sources as Christian missionaries and Mahatma Ghandi that facilitated growth of voluntary

organizations (or NGOs) aimed at improving India through development. Ghandi's ideals and practices sparked a grassroots movement toward self-responsibility at village level in India. Like Freire, however, Ghandi reversed the normal flow of thought (from North to South) and shaped approaches to practice from the North, especially the influential appropriate technology movement that would follow years after his death (Thomas, 1992).

In Africa, missionary activity was similarly influential in fostering the development of NGOs, but it was the fertile soil of agreeable contextual factors, including tribal structures and kinship ties, that helped NGOs flourish (Lewis, 2001). African concepts such as *ubuntu* (South Africa) and *harambee* (Kenya), which express values of mutuality based on communal ties and shared destinies, provided the foundation for the successful establishment of African NGOs by Westerners. In more recent years, these cultural sentiments have proved to be the basis for successful NGO efforts aimed at mediating conflict in Nigeria (Honey and Okafor, 1998) and seeking reconciliation following war and genocide in Rwanda (Rusesabagina, 2006).

Wars and their aftermath have served as the impetus for the genesis of many a NGO. The International Red Cross was created in 1863 by a Swiss citizen concerned with lacking post-war medical services. Save the Children grew out of two sisters' concern with the consequences of an economic blockade on Germany and Austria after World War I. The Cooperative for Assistance with Remittances to Europe (CARE) was created after World War II to help devastated communities throughout Europe (CARE, 2009). Table 2.1 identifies some better-known international NGOs and their founding dates.

Table 2.1: Sample International Nongovernmental Organizations and their founding dates**Source: SustainAbility 2005:13**

1830s	1839 Anti-Slavery International founded as The British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society
1860s	1863 International Committee of the Red Cross
1880s	1886 Audubon Society
1890s	1892 Sierra Club
1910s	1919 Save the Children
1940s	1941 Oxfam The Oxford Committee for Famine Relief 1945 Christian Aid/Care International founded as the Co-operative for American Remittances to Europe 1948 International Union for the Conservation of Nature founded as International Union for the Protection of Nature
1960s	1961 World Wildlife Fund/Amnesty International founded as Appeal for Amnesty 1968 Natural Resources Defense Council 1969 Survival International/Friends of the Earth
1970s	1970 Philippines Business for Social Progress 1971 Greenpeace/Pact/Médecins Sans Frontières 1972 ActionAid founded as Action in Distress 1975 Traidcraft founded as Tearcraft 1978 Human Rights Watch
1980s	1980 The Centre for Science and Environment 1981 Peace Brigades International 1984 Landless Peasants Movement 1987 Conservation International 1988 CERES Coalition for Environmentally Responsible Economies/ CEMEFI Mexican Center for Philanthropy
1990s	1990 International Business Leaders Forum 1992 International Campaign to Ban Landmines 1993 Transparency International/CIVICUS/Global Witness 1995 The National Business Initiative (South Africa)/OneWorld 1996 Jubilee 2000/Global Village of Beijing

From their inceptions and throughout their histories, NGOs have been influenced and shaped by societal factors. Beyond the events or issues, which often furnished the impetus for their birth, larger factors have served to refashion them. As we have seen, the nineteenth and early to mid-twentieth centuries provided many such external stimulants, including religious expansionism, global conflicts, social injustices, disasters and industrialization. Tandon (2000) adds to those the major forces influencing NGO development since then, as demonstrated in Figure 2.2:

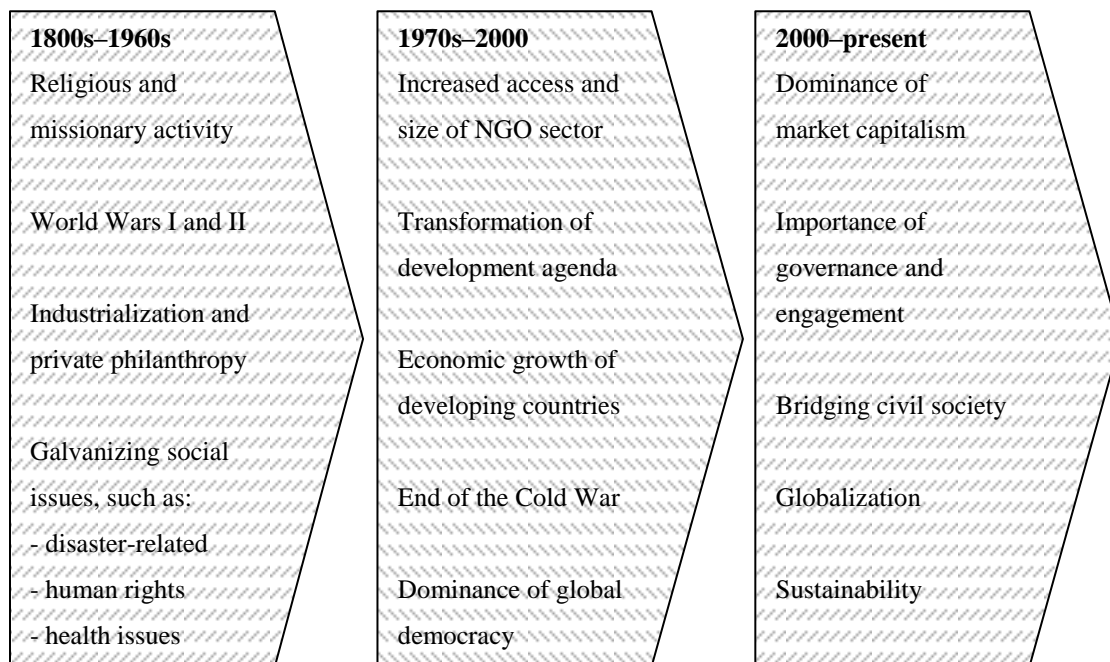


Figure 2.2: Factors and influences shaping NGOs from their inception to the present time

Sources: Manji and O’Coill, 2005; Lewis, 2001; Tandon, 2000; Escobar, 1997; Sen, 1992

As indicated in Figure 2.2, Tandon offers five influencers on international NGOs toward the end of the twentieth century. He explains how NGOs’ increased size, diversity and numbers gave them new visibility as important societal and global players, which resulted in greater access and influence with governments and multi-lateral organizations. This resulted in international NGOs gaining a platform from which to promote a transformation of the development agenda that by the end of the century transitioned from radical alternative to mainstream (see Table 2.2). The significance of this for NGOs

is that in several decades they moved from being isolated outsiders to insiders setting the agenda for global development thinking and practice.

Table 2.2 Comparison of the development agenda with the alternative development paradigm

Sources: Tandon, 2000

Pre-1970s development agenda	Alternative development paradigm
National-level development (of post-colonial nation-states)	Local-level development (at village, slum, community level)
Large-scale macro-development (roads, large dams, industry-level)	Small-scale micro-development (managed by small collectives of human beings)
Fragmented, sector development approach (focusing all resources on one aspect, such as sanitation or education)	Integrated approach to development (integrating efforts to meet the total needs of families and local community)
Externally-led, government-determined development approach	Participatory approach engaging recipients' input and engagement
Driven by GNP, growth and macroeconomic indicators	Ideologically driven and inspired by suffering people as once conscientized, they gave voice

The other three influencing factors of the late twentieth century are politically linked. During the period, liberal democracy emerged as the clear choice for countries and peoples throughout most of the world. The success of people movements was encouraged by NGOs, and the challenge that followed was that the enemy (authoritarian government) was no longer. NGOs' roles would have to change. The second, related factor was the fall of the Soviet Union (USSR) and its satellite countries. This ushered in huge pressures and geo-political changes for NGOs. The former Soviet states were deeply depressed and required massive amounts of development assistance, which changed the map for global aid flows. Additionally, the geo-political East-West tension that played out in so many developing countries was replaced with a North-South dynamic. Again, the former enemy (USSR) was no longer. In the vacuum, NGOs would have to adjust to new potential threats, and in many cases, these would come from their own governments. The third factor was the dramatic economic improvement of many formerly impoverished developing nations in South and East Asia and Latin America. As

a result, NGOs would be required to adjust to contexts where macroeconomic policies actually worked to help make formerly poor countries prosperous.

At the outset of the twenty-first century, Tandon (2000) identified the major influences shaping international NGOs and their development going forward. These are included in the right-hand arrow in Figure 2.2.

The first major factor relates to the final factor of the twentieth century, and that is the *growing role of market capitalism* in producing economic growth in developing countries. NGOs have been curiously conflicted on the subject of for-profit business' role in development. On the one hand, they remain suspicious of capitalism's profit-seeking motives, while at the same time building increasing reliance on its micro-benefits (through micro-financing, micro-business and most recently, micro-insurance). Going forward, NGOs must consider transitioning from suspicion to association with profit-making organizations in order to have the greatest impact on development.

The second factor is *good governance*. Development succeeds best in a transparent, accountable participatory democracy. NGOs' roles must change from resisting to engaging and reforming the political process in the many new democracies to advocate for the conditions that will improve the latter's chances at success.

Thirdly, many NGOs have traditionally eschewed *engagement*, but must give up their inward-looking ways and bridge to civil society. Market, political and global forces will shape societies regardless, and NGOs must realize and vocalize their role, or risk irrelevance.

The fourth factor is *globalization*, which NGOs initially resisted. As newly engaged members of civil society, they must publically welcome the benefits and possibilities of globalization while witnessing to its risks.

The final major factor influencing NGOs in the early twenty-first century is *sustainability*. NGOs have historically been completely externally funded, however the calculus of global aid is changing and so must they. As previously mentioned, partnerships with their own and other sectors, including business and government, along with self-generating initiatives will help them demonstrate their long-term legitimacy to both their local and global partners.

New perspectives generated from this brief historical review of NGOs are offered in Figure 2.3. It is not an overstatement to claim that the development of NGOs during the last forty years has been more akin to a metamorphosis than to a gradual process. The synthesis from the literature in Figure 2.3 suggests that over the last century, NGOs have evolved, or developed generationally (Korten, 1987) in the following fashions.

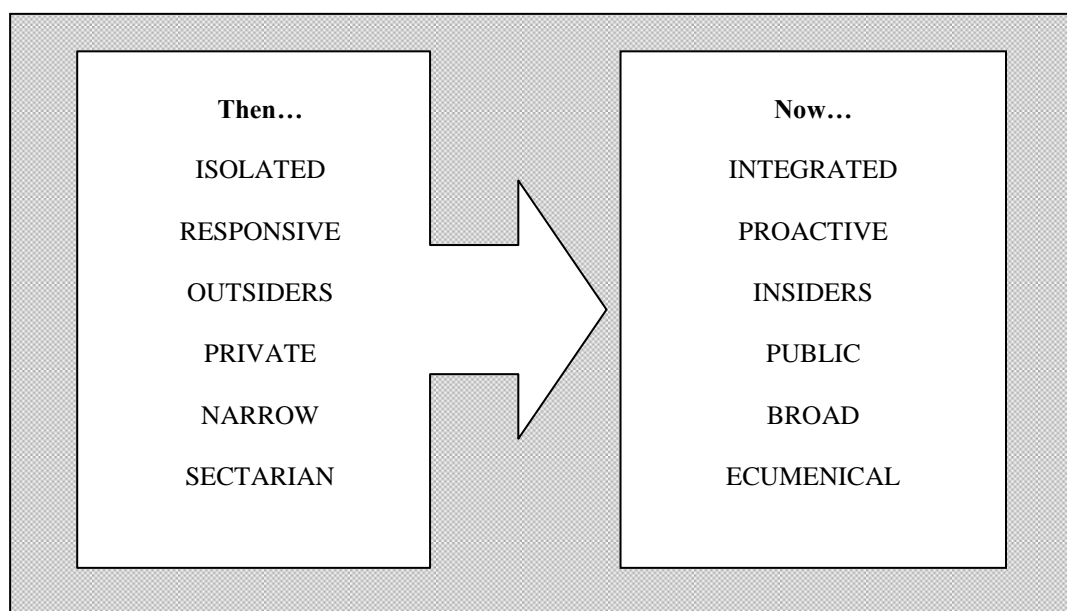


Figure 2.3: Conceptualized evolution of the character qualities of international NGOs over the last century

This sense of originating inspiration and historical context is a good foundation for the discussion that follows concerning NGO roles and activities.

2.2.2 The roles and activities of NGOs

Prior to the 1980s, little attention was given to the role of the intermediary organization in developing countries in terms of wielding power and having the ability to effect significant change. Since that point, focus has sharpened on NGOs as essential partners of the state and business in developing societies. NGOs critical importance is directly related to their grassroots engagement and their ability to effectively deliver services to common people, both attributes that governments and big businesses in developing countries often lack (Anheier and Salamon, 1998).

With the expansive growth of NGOs since the 1980s, there have been many attempts to define NGOs. The definitions extend from general descriptions of NGOs as organizations that operate independently from government to the more precise descriptions of NGOs as independent, not-for-profit, volunteer and producing a public benefit (Kramer, 2000). *Public benefit* is described by some as the promotion of common goals (Martens, 2002), and by others as relief and development. The World Bank is particularly helpful in elaborating on the last point, by defining NGOs as “private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development” (World Bank, 2009:3).

The roles that NGOs perform in the relief of suffering and poverty are many. Lewis (2001) notes that NGOs are *implementers* (those that deliver services and goods), *catalysts* (those that empower their clients and communities through education, skills, enhanced capacities for self-sustainability and political activism) and *partners* (those who make more efficient use of limited resources and co-labor with government and business to change culture, institutions or systems in order to attain objectives they could not achieve on their own).

Leonard’s (2006) extensive list paints a portrait of NGOs as all things to all people who need relief, and he identifies NGOs as advocates, educators, catalysts, monitors, whistle-

blowers, mediators, lobbyists, activists, mobilizers, protectors, conscientizers, and conciliators. Regarding NGO's provision of basic human services and their performance of development activities, he also observes that NGO concerns include poverty, illiteracy, lack of education, disease, unemployment, human rights infractions, disempowerment, and environmental degradation.

Table 2.3: Summary of nongovernmental organizations' definitions, roles and activities

Sources: World Bank, 2009; Leonard, 2006; Kramer, 2000; Lewis, 2001

NGO definitions	NGO roles	NGO concerns
Independent from government	Encourage political activism	Human rights infractions
Not-for-profit	Mediate and conciliate change culture and systems	Disempowerment
Volunteer	Build human skills	Unemployment
Produce a public benefit	Deliver goods and services	Disease
Relieve suffering	Serve communities in need	Poverty
Promote interests of the poor	Empower through education	Lack of education
Protect the environment	Enhance self-sustainability	Environmental degradation
Provide basic social services	Champion basic needs	Illiteracy
Undertake community development	Collaborate with business and governments	Response to natural disasters

Table 2.3 summarizes the definitions, roles and activities of NGOs as outlined by the aforementioned sources. Even though NGOs are exceedingly diverse in form and function, this presentation suggests that the role of development is a thread of continuity throughout the literature.

Figure 2.4 (on the following page) from the Union of International Associations, which groups international NGOs (INGOs) by purpose, is largely consistent with this conclusion. Note that the largest INGO purpose reported in 2000 was economic development:

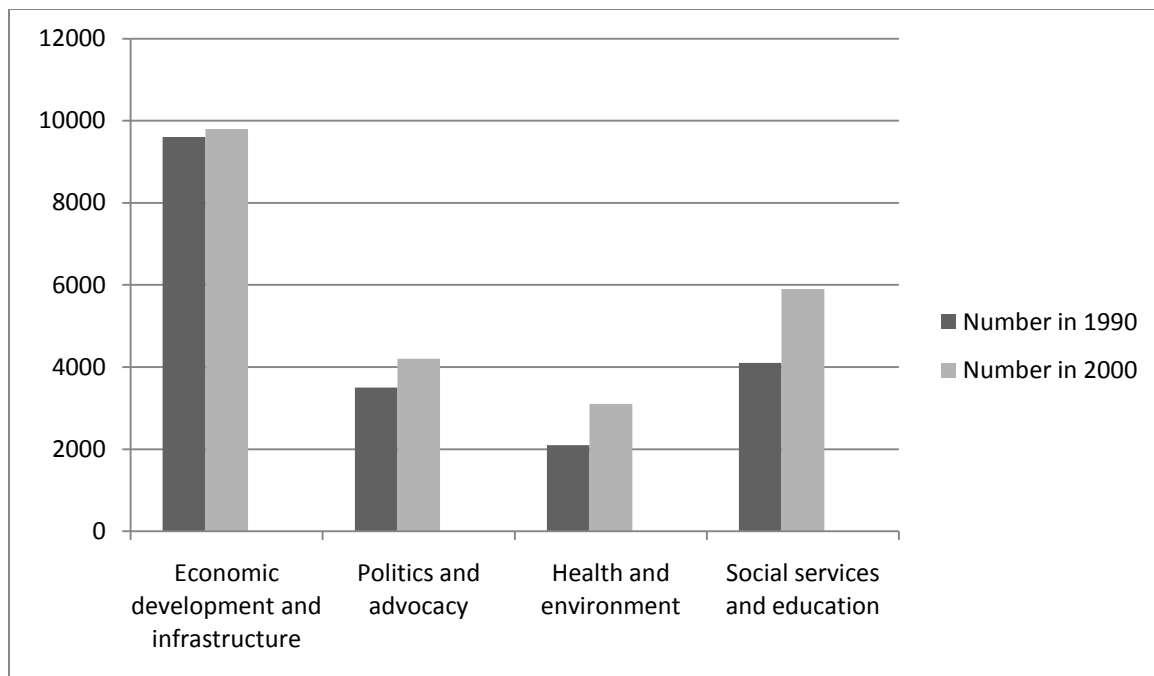


Figure 2.4: Number of international nongovernmental organizations by purpose, 1990 and 2000

Source: Herman, 2005:112

Historically, NGOs have been birthed because of religious, philanthropic and altruistic responses to issues, crises and challenges presented by the world and its inhabitants. Wars, natural disasters, human rights issues and chronic poverty are chief among the reasons why many NGOs were launched. Since the 1980s, though, as NGOs have been invited into greater cooperation with governments, NGOs have transitioned from mitigating crises toward fostering development as their primary focus. Such an evolution necessarily altered their organizational missions and approaches from narrow, shorter-term to broader, longer-term strategies and objectives. This review of NGO roles and activities and the observation of a growing focus on economic development transitions us, therefore, to a discussion of the different kinds of NGOs and an explanation of a development-oriented NGO.

2.3 DIFFERENT KINDS OF NGOS AND THE ROLES OF DEVELOPMENT NGOS

In the middle of the twentieth century, NGOs tended to be characterized by providing isolated responses to human emergencies and catastrophic crises. In other words, NGOs were responsive to desperate need and acted in accordance with their donors' expressions, with little inclination toward collaboration. A shift away from both of these behaviors occurred in the 1980s when Northern governments¹ began to view and engage NGOs as their agents in alleviating human suffering, including a migration from a relief to a development mindset. As the century closed, NGOs were increasingly engaged in long-term development efforts, delivering services for poverty reduction, health programs and environmental interventions (Lewis, 2001).

2.3.1 The different kinds of NGOs

It is particularly challenging to identify specific kinds of NGOs, because as has been demonstrated, NGOs tend to provide a host of comprehensive services and seize upon opportunities to evolve as they address changing needs. Because NGOs assist in the physical, emotional, and sometimes spiritual growth and development of individuals, families, groups and communities, Edwards and Hulme (1996) referenced NGOs as human service organizations. Porter (2003:131) calls NGOs "democratizing elements of civil society", both because of their horizontal approaches and their empowering outcomes. Leonard (2006) added a list of other descriptors assigned to NGOs, including voluntary agencies, people's groups, action groups, private organizations, non-profit organizations, grassroots organizations, community organizations, self-help organizations, public service contractors and intermediary organizations.

Perhaps the most common means of identifying the different kinds of NGOs is by the use of acronyms. In some instances, these acronyms express a regional preference. For example, in China and the United States, the use of *NPO* (nonprofit organization) is more

¹ This expression typically refers to the world's wealthier nations, most of which exist north of the equator.

prevalent than *NGO* in describing these organizations. *CSO* (civil society organization) may be preferred in other contexts. However, most of the time the acronyms employed include *NGO* as shorthand for *nongovernmental organization* and such acronyms are used to help order the increasing complexity of the NGO universe. For example, *INGOs* has been used to categorize international NGOs. Similarly, *NGDO* describes a development NGO or nongovernmental development organization, and *ENGO* references an environmental NGO.

Unfortunately, numerous NGOs are inspired neither by spirits of altruism or voluntarism. A complete vocabulary has developed to describe these regrettable creations. A *BENGO*, or *Bent NGO*, exists merely to serve the purposes of its founder(s). This may not differ greatly from a *MONGO*, or *my own NGO*, which is a personality-driven enterprise. A *MANGO*, or *Mafia NGO*, is established for the benefit of organized crime. A *CONGO* is a commercial NGO, and a *GONGO* is a government-sponsored NGO. Close cousins of the GONGO include the *PANGO*, or *political party NGO*, and the *QUANGO*, which is a quasi-NGO established by a government as a parallel service provider (Fowler, 2001).

According to Gibelman and Gelman (2001), NGOs can also be identified according to their values-orientations. *Sectarian NGOs* have their origins with a particular religious belief system or are oriented toward providing services primarily to or on behalf of the members of a particular religious group. For example, World Vision International claims both a Christian inspiration and mission. While this orientation both inspires and impacts its work, it does not mean it discriminates its programming according to the religiosity of aid recipients. *Non-sectarian NGOs* are those that have no such basis in religion, either from a philosophical or philanthropic perspective. The work of the Oxford Committee for Famine Relief (Oxfam), for example, was inspired as a humanitarian response to famine relief during World War II and might mirror World Vision's work in many ways, but from a different source of inspiration and mission.

NGOs are also sometimes characterized according to regional characteristics such as Northern NGOs (from the developed world) and Southern NGOs (from the developing

world). Table 2.4 distinguishes between the NGOs from the Northern and Southern hemispheres. While some of the generalizations may seem uncomfortable or not

Table 2.4: Ten differences between Northern and Southern nongovernmental organizations

Source: SustainAbility 2005:12

	Northern (developed market) NGOs	Southern (emerging market) NGOs
1	Well researched	Poorly researched
2	Broadly accepted part of national and international governance	Variously banned, tolerated or neglected players in governance
3	Many big, international brands; often franchised internationally	Few brands, mostly national and smaller; brands rarely franchised
4	More individual giving	Fewer, larger supporters
5	Foundation support (and agendas) central	Multilateral aid agency support (and agendas) central
6	Skew towards campaigns, advocacy, though there is a vast – if less visible – world of service providers	Skew towards service provision, though there are some very powerful activist movements
7	Professionalization well advanced	Professionalization early stage
8	Growing capacity to engage business	Weak capacity to engage business
9	High leverage NGO-business partnerships fairly well established	High leverage NGO-business partnerships still fairly rare
10	Often speak for ‘South’	Hardly ever speak for ‘North’

universally applicable, much of the information is helpful in characterizing differing levels of sector maturity between the hemispheres. Maturity seems to be a helpful concept to apply to these differences. Considering what has already been reported

concerning NGO history, it seems the key factors in developed (Northern) versus emerging (Southern) NGOs are resources and age.

2.3.2 The roles of development NGOs

In contrast to NGOs that cater to the self-interests of groups or individuals, development NGOs are largely motivated by philanthropic values. Development is a process of expanding the freedoms people need in order to live long and to have a good life, including things like political participation, basic education, health care, unhindered food supply, open labor markets, the ability to participate in economic interchange, gender equity, the absence of corruption, and unrestrained physical movement (Sen, 2001).

As with NGOs in general, many descriptors have been applied to the variety of development NGOs that exist. Clark (1991) divides development NGOs into six categories:

- relief and welfare organizations (RWAs);
- technical innovation organizations (TIOs);
- public service contractors (PSCs);
- popular development agencies (PDAs);
- grassroots development organizations (GDOs); and
- advocacy groups and networks (AGNs).

Fisher's typology, however, succinctly describes development NGOs as related to the academic program that is the focus of this study. The three types of NGOs as categorized by Fisher (2003; 1998) are:

1. *Grassroots organizations* (GROs): locally based groups that work to improve and develop their own communities, either with community-wide membership or more specific membership groups, such as women or farmers. These tend to be largely voluntary and indigenous in nature, and typically rise from the felt needs of impoverished communities and peoples. Thus, GROs may be village groups that form around a shared concern, perhaps to respond to a threat to local habitat. A GRO

might be a gathering of women who together realize their economic potential through collaborating to attract micro-enterprise development investments. It might also be a group of unemployed youth who come together to learn work skills and develop connections with employers. Therefore, it seems that GROs tend at the outset to be project-oriented, or birthed in response to a challenge or hardship. The number of GROs is likely to be in the hundreds of thousands, although this is impossible to quantify because their organic nature means that few are officially registered with governing authorities. They thrive throughout the world, but less so in the Middle East, where the emphasis on individual responsibility has frustrated similar progress in the creation of collective activist organizations.

2. *Grassroots support organizations* (GRSOs): sometimes evolving from GROs, GRSOs are groups that are concerned with a broader agenda, including development, the environment, the role of women and primary health care. At the turn of the last millennium, there existed more than 50 000 of these regional development assistance organizations in the developing world. GRSOs typically possess a greater geographic footprint than GROs, which implement a local response to a local challenge, because GRSOs facilitate multiple projects. GRSOs are usually staffed by professionals who secure and allocate financial resources to GROs and help multiple communities to develop. Examples of GRSOs include credit associations and service cooperatives, which may support many individual GROs with access to capital, knowledge and networks. In Honduras, village-based small-farmer GROs have been brought together by GRSOs to form marketing collectives that increase their bargaining power with food brokers while lowering costs for getting their products to market.
3. *International non-governmental organizations* (INGOs): including more than 40,000 private overseas organizations that cross national boundaries to perform work in development. INGOs operate transnationally, which is to say their effective imprint exceeds that of GRSOs. In contrast to GROs and GRSOs, whose respective interests are local and regional, INGOs either tacitly or actively coordinate their activities and strategies with those established by global institutions, such as the United Nations and

the World Bank. INGOs' primary activities include the delivery of funding, expertise and political power to social issues and challenges. In many cases, INGOs provide sources of financial resources that GRSOs require but cannot access regionally. INGOs are not without criticism, however, and have been accused of fostering political or donor agendas, breaking international laws and practicing culture-blind practices, which create unintended consequences for recipient populations.

Building on these various definitions and roles, we can conclude several things about the social goals of development NGOs. Firstly, NGOs primarily exist to reduce poverty by affecting a process through which people progressively gain control over survival, well-being and empowerment (Fowler, 1997). Secondly, their effective battle against poverty is complex, addressing its root causes, which include the complex, interlocking factors of physical weakness, vulnerability, isolation and powerlessness (Chambers, 1993). Thirdly, NGOs are required to adopt intermediary roles between governing hierarchies and local aid program participants and recipients (Carroll, 1992).

The roles development NGOs play in addressing social problems determine the management capabilities their leaders must possess. Many, not necessarily exclusive, opinions exist on what those roles are. Table 2.5 summarizes Lewis' (2001) and Carroll's (1992) views on the different functions of development NGOs. The differences in the lists in Table 2.5 reflect originating perspective more so than substance. Indeed, viewed differently, they represent complementary views, with Lewis' coming from the organizational perspective and Carroll's from the clients' point of view.

Table 2.5 Differing views on the functions of development nongovernmental organizations

Source: Lewis, 2001 and Carroll, 1992

Lewis on development NGO functions:	Carroll on development NGO functions:
Deliver new or improved services to communities in need	Increase role in effective service delivery
Expend efforts to encourage social, economic and political change	Rapid, transparent and honest disbursement and utilization of funds
Create synergies among agencies and initiatives through collaboration	Sustainability of activities

Fowler's (1997) analysis is the more satisfying of the two as he offers a comprehensive identification of development NGOs' functions at both the micro- and macro-levels of society. The first micro-level role Fowler identifies is the *empowerment of communities and individuals*. Empowerment can be delivered through material, social or financial services. Empowered communities and individuals are those who together agree upon and develop around certain sets of values that have been identified as keys to health and well-being. US-based INGO, Africare, for example has determined that empowering women is key to developing Africans mired in poverty. Through empowerment education, which builds their confidence, teaches them requisite skills, provides the necessary tools, and organizes women into networks for collaboration, Africare believes that women will be successful in securing opportunities for advancing African communities (Africare, 2009).

Fowler next identifies as a micro-role the *strengthening of the capacity of local institutions*. Capacity building reflects an effort to establish the institutions and processes that communities require in order to be self-sustaining. These local capacities are multiple, but include financial, educational, health and governing institutions that link together in the best interests of the community. Communities lacking either of these institutional capacities will find themselves hampered in growth and development. For example, the INGO African Malaria Network Trust (AMANET) assessed that the battle against malaria in East Africa was not progressing due to the lack of capacity in regional

research centers. Targeted identification of the necessary resources to expand the capacity of existing clinical institutions would lead to the desired result of greater community health and welfare (African Malaria Network Trust, 2008).

The third and final micro-role Fowler identifies is *sustaining improvements in physical well-being*. The idea of sustainable development is a concept that considers the improvement of current living standards within the commitment not to act in ways that threaten future generations. This “do-no-harm” approach (Anderson, 1999) typically results in consistent, longer-term responses to chronic community conditions. For example, population displacement and extreme poverty have created regions in the world where entire landscapes have been denuded, leaving no vegetation behind for either nutritional or heating purposes. In response, the INGO Educational Concerns for Hunger Organization (ECHO) has researched and now distributes the versatile Moringa “miracle” tree, which provides nutritious carbohydrate-enriched leafy growth for eating and quickly regenerates itself for the purposes of cutting and burning for fuel (Venkatraman, 2008).

The macro-level roles that development NGOs address include those that impact the larger social order and which are sometimes transnational in their scope. The first macro-role Fowler identifies is the *reform of the international order*. This means that NGOs, because of their global engagement and multi-national origins, have the ability to influence or monitor compliance of international institutions and their humanitarian practices in ways distinct governments do not. In the wake of the recent Asian Tsunami and Hurricane Katrina, the world witnessed governments’ limitations of response with massive humanitarian crises. However, the response of NGOs demonstrated an ability to succeed where governments failed. Thus, the UN Under-Secretary-General proclaimed NGOs as the “guardians of the reform of the international system” (United Nations, 2005). In fact, an INGO exists that has precisely that mission. The Conference of NGOs has as its purpose to improve global governance through engaging and reforming the United Nations’ governing bodies (Bloem, 2006).

The second macro-role Fowler identifies is the *reform of public service and public policies*. In many cases, laws or the lack thereof, affect great consequences on development efforts. Where those consequences are negative, NGOs engage in political advocacy, public education and public mobilization in order to effect desired change. For example, in post-conflict Kosovo and Afghanistan, the lack of legal frameworks permitting engagement in these countries prevented NGOs from legally operating during a crucial period when their services were desperately needed. Due to the advocacy of one INGO, the International Center for Not-for-Profit Law, new laws were crafted and effected in Kosovo four months after the conflict subsided, allowing the NGO sector to quickly flourish. Afghanistan's situation languished, however, for several years with the results being not nearly as encouraging (Shea and Moore, 2007).

The third and final macro-role Fowler identifies for development NGOs is the *restructuring of the political economy*. NGOs are now important partners with many governments in addressing significant societal issues and concerns. Whereas government once multi-tasked its way through providing social services, increasingly it works in partnership where it provides direction while NGOs do the work as public service contractors. The restructuring of socio-economic realities and their concomitant pressures on governments have given NGOs even greater leeway to shape responses to issues such as globalization, for instance, once the exclusive domain of government. Examples of this restructuring of the political economies of developing countries abound in all sectors, including commerce, education, health and social services. In the mid-1990s, President Zedillo redrafted Mexico's national development plan, encouraging NGOs into the role of developing and implementing public policy. Since then the Mexican government and NGOs have become strong partners in the creation and delivery of social services. While attractive to NGOs, the potential flaws in this approach include the potential for the state to cede responsibility for social services and also the questionable capacity of NGOs to handle the burden (Buxton and Phillips, 1999). A summary of Fowler's analysis is contained in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Summary of Fowler on the functions of development nongovernmental organizations

Source: Fowler, 1997

Functions	Qualities	Evidence
Micro-level:		
Empowerment of communities and individuals	Can be delivered through material, social or financial services	Communities agree upon and develop around values key to health and well-being
Strengthening of the capacity of local institutions	Capacities include financial, educational, health and governing institutions	Self-sustaining, local institutions that work for the common good
Improvements in physical well-being	Consistent, longer term responses to chronic community conditions	Improved current living standards with no harm done to future generations
Macro-level:		
Reform of the international order	Influence or monitor global humanitarian practices	Promotion of best practices and accountability for governments and NGOs
Reform of public service and public policies	Activities include political advocacy, public education and mobilization	Legal foundations permit and protect NGO and development activity
Restructuring of the political economy	NGOs and governments work mutually in strategic partnership	More effective, sustainable responses of significant social issues and concerns

With a baseline understanding of the various types of NGOs and with an emphasis on development NGOs established, the next section investigates various issues they face. Of special importance is the matter of funding, as this has been one of the most significant opportunities for NGOs in recent years. However, the pressures of those financial resources on management are worth investigating in some detail.

2.4 SIGNIFICANT ISSUES FACING DEVELOPMENT NGOS AND NGO MANAGERS

Development NGOs may have seen as much tumultuous change in the last thirty years as they had in their entire prior history. Massive aid flows and the advent of the Millennium

Development Goals are the two obvious change factors, but beneath, behind and between them exists a web of influences that promises persistent change into the future.

2.4.1 The impact of increased wealth on NGOs

The last quarter of the twentieth century was characterized by massive growth in the transfer of wealth to development-oriented NGOs as the countries and donors from which aid flows sought to locate alternative options to governments that had failed to adequately execute human service programs with funds previously entrusted to them (Billis and Harris, 1996). This growth accelerated over time as donors determined that governments failed to subvert their own short-term interests in favor of their peoples' long-term needs (Chang, 2005). Table 2.7 demonstrates the increasing upward trajectory of the financial exchange over the last two decades of the twentieth century.

Table 2.7: Income of international nongovernmental organizations registered with United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 1982–2001 (in billions of US dollars)
Source: Herman, 2005:109

<i>Income</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1992</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1997</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>2001</i>
<u>Source</u>								
Private	1.30	3.40	6.30	7.10	8.33	9.40	10.33	12.80
Public	1.07	1.60	2.40	2.40	2.54	2.90	3.91	4.05
Total	2.37	5.00	8.70	9.50	10.87	12.30	14.24	16.85

When adjusted for inflation in US dollars from 1982 through 2001, these numbers seem no less impressive. The inflation-adjusted total (in 1982 dollars) of INGO income in 2001 was fourteen billion dollars, representing an increase of nearly 600% since 1982 (EconEdLink, 2009).

Beyond perceptions of poor performance of government programs, several other compelling reasons for the fund transfer were noted in the literature, including:

- failures experienced by receiving governments' programs due to inefficiencies or corruption (Lewis, 2001);
- the end of the Cold War;
- increased access to countries formerly under the Soviet sphere of control, many of which were in desperate need of development and investment; and
- a shifting belief that NGO involvement in development projects enhanced good governance and reduced the challenges that characterized many formerly Communist and developing country authorities (Herman, 2005).

For some donor countries, the shift in resource deployment was striking. Lewis (2001) reported that Sweden came to rely heavily on NGOs with 85 percent of its funds being distributed through NGOs. He also documented how Britain increased its share of funds for developing nations through NGOs dramatically. From the mid-80s through the mid-90s, British government aid to NGOs increased in excess of 400 percent. In addition to governments, their agents, including large multilateral organizations (among others the EU, the World Bank), utilized NGOs as partners in development work.

Consequently, international nongovernmental organizations have expanded dramatically since the early 1990s. The ten largest INGOs expended more than \$3 billion for relief and development purposes toward the end of the decade (Herman, 2005). However, beyond the burgeoning growth of the sector's largest organizations, another result of this dramatic shift of subsidies has been the rapid growth in the number of INGOs over a similar period, as demonstrated in Figure 2.5:

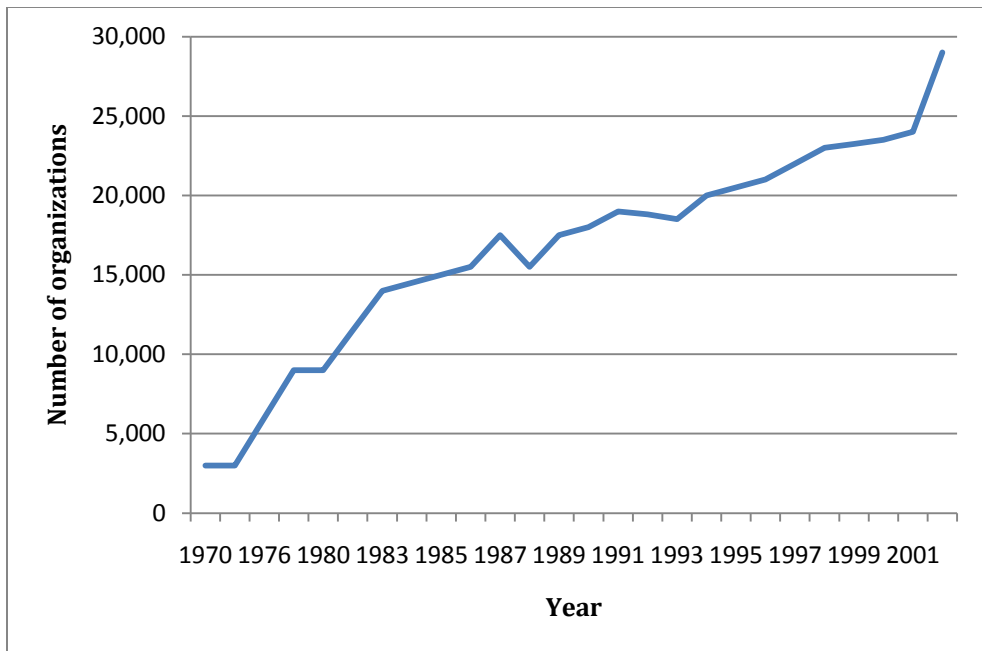


Figure 2.5: Increase in the number of international nongovernmental organizations, 1970–2002

Source: Herman, 2005:107

The not-for-profit sector globally is worth more than one trillion US dollars and employs more than 19 million people (SustainAbility, 2005). Most NGOs have performed valuably in providing services to marginalized populations, services that would not have been supplied by government. However, the enormity of poverty remains, with eleven million people dying annually from poverty-related causes. This suggested a change in approach was needed, which was informed and directed by the creation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the United Nations (Shetty, 2005).

2.4.2 The Millennium Development Goals and NGOs

Prior to the adoption of the MDGs (see Table 2.8), development thinking and practice were predominantly focused on donor designed and managed projects. Because of perceived weaknesses in host country institutions, investment flowed away from infrastructure and toward demonstration projects where results could be attained in relatively short order due to a greater span of control and focused resources. Predictably, the short-term results achieved in isolation were pleasing to donors. However, the

approach often failed to facilitate sustainable outcomes, particularly when the failure to engage local systems and authorities were factored in (Conlin and Stirrat, 2008).

Table 2.8 United Nations Millennium Development Goals

Source: United Nations, 2009

Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day
Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling
Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably in 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015
Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate
Reduce by three quarters the maternal mortality rate
Achieve universal access to reproductive health
Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS
Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it
Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases
Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources
Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss
Halve, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation
By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers
Address the special needs of least developed countries, landlocked countries and small island

developing states
Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system
Deal comprehensively with developing countries' debt
In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries
In cooperation with the private sector, make available benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications

Since the 1990s, a significant change in aid has occurred as witnessed by four major trends. The first trend was a rise of management for results, which entailed moving from outputs to impact and measuring the effect of development assistance. This is more than achieving deliverables, but whether or not the deliverables have had the impact that was hoped for them, especially as defined by an increasing emphasis on achieving the UN's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as a framework from which all development activity should fit (United Nations, 2009).

The MDGs provide a commonly accepted set of indicators by which progress may be measured, such as lowering the number of people living in extreme poverty, increasing literacy rates, promoting gender equality and empowering women, decreasing child mortality, improving maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS and other diseases, ensuring environmental sustainability and developing global partnerships for development (United Nations, 2009).

The "management-for-results" approach toward achieving the MDG goals, while promising more progress, is also a two-edged sword for NGOs. The key challenge of this approach will manifest itself in heightened NGO governance expectations, including enhanced demands for accountability, transparency and standards (SustainAbility, 2005).

The second trend in international aid to NGOs was the changing relationship between aid givers and receivers, especially the emphasis on partnership that preceded the MDGs and which was reinforced by them (Conlin and Stirrat, 2008). NGOs are increasingly expected to align with country objectives and to harmonize with other NGOs based on the shared goals of accomplishing the MDGs. This is being borne out as Herman (2005) reports that the growth of linkages between INGOs grew dramatically between 1990 and 2000, with the average links increasing from six to fourteen per organization, an increase of more than one hundred percent.

The third trend was an adjustment in aid delivery from narrow project-oriented to broad sector funding (Conlin and Stirrat, 2008). This applies to all actors in the sector and assumes mutual accountability for achieving results, which includes reformation of regulations and legislation, physical infrastructure investment, and supporting training and capacity development. Again, uniting all these disparate actions should be the MDG indicators. The indicators are formed by subdividing broad goals and priorities into achievable actions, always keeping in mind the importance of regional contexts in identifying objectives. This will provide the basis for evaluating the effectiveness of development policies, programs and activities, which is essential to strategic decision-making (Tilbury, 2007).

The fourth trend was an increasing awareness and appreciation for development assistance being only one element of a complex mix of activities required for an improved relationship between developed and developing worlds, the others including trade, private investment, migration, and climate change (Conlin & Stirrat, 2008). Once the focus of criticism for non-professional behavior, the NGO pendulum may have swung to the opposite extreme as evinced by the occasional criticism of NGOs as being highly bureaucratized (Lewis, 2001). According to Dichter (2005:10), this transition has been dictated by global aid flows and donors and means “To survive ... today’s NGO has been forced to become more corporate-like and less church-like.”

To summarize these trends, a number of events and occurrences have caused a massive reallocation of global financial resources from governments toward NGOs. This included a loss of confidence in governments' ability to deliver desired results due to ineffectiveness and corruption. The end of the Cold War coupled with the desperate need of former Soviet countries also contributed to NGO largesse toward the end of the last century. The NGO sector responded with substantive growth in numbers and in output.

Simultaneously, other shifts in development added shape to the NGO task and identified issues for NGOs and their managers. The institution of the Millennium Development Goals created a shared platform for mutual accountability to which NGOs would attend going forward. Achievement of the aggressive goals would require NGOs to transition from project to sector orientations, requiring collaboration and coordination with each other and with organizations in their host countries. These kinds of partnerships would require competencies in cross-cultural understanding so that strategic activities seriously engage regional contexts. Finally, NGO success would require awareness and integration with governments and business communities, as sustainability would require a multi-disciplinary approach to global MDG goals and targets.

These revolutions in the NGO sector have changed the industry so that the past accomplishments of NGOs are no longer a guarantee of satisfactory future performance. To address the new realities, NGO leaders and staff need to be trained and retooled in order to maximize the opportunity of the moment. The next section addresses this need and some of the challenges to learning in NGOs.

2.5 THE NEED FOR AND BARRIERS TO LEARNING IN NGOS

According to the American Red Cross, "the largest in history" disaster relief recovery effort and development operation that followed the devastating tsunami in Southeast Asia on December 26, 2004, tried NGOs in ways management had never been tested (American Red Cross, 2005). With governments' failures to respond to global

humanitarian issues, NGOs' needs for advanced training for their enlarged roles increased dramatically (Chang, 2005).

2.5.1 The need for learning in NGOs

While NGO learning requirements are certainly pressed by natural disasters and government incompetency, they may be even more heightened by the changes brought on with the aforementioned increased aid and expectations. With increasing investments in NGOs come enlarged challenges. Corruption (Khan, 1998) and accountability (Brett, 2003) remain challenges in the NGO sector. The 1990s saw increased requests for heightened accountability procedures for NGOs in the US, Great Britain, Canada and Australia (Gibelman and Demone, 1998). This came in the wake of NGO scandals, some of which dominated the global press and tarnished the view of the otherwise highly respected nongovernmental organization sector (see Table 2.9). These scandals and other

Table 2.9: Major nongovernmental organization scandals, 2003-2004

Source: Gibelman and Gelman, 2004:361–2

<u>Organization</u>	<u>Allegation</u>	<u>Wrongdoer</u>	<u>Outcome</u>
Humana People-to-People Planet Aid (Denmark)	Fraud	Director	Prison
National AIDS Control Council (Kenya)	Misappropriation of funds	Executive Director	Suspended, then fired
Australian Red Cross (Australia)	Mishandling of Bali appeal funds	Treasurer	Cleared of wrongdoing; charged to improve communication
Ukrainian Fund to Fight HIV Infection and AIDS (Ukraine)	Misuse of funds	Trustees	Funding withheld

Iraqi Oil-For-Food (Iraq)	Widespread corruption	UN undersecretary	Unknown
Proshika (Bangladesh)	Corruption	Founder and six associates	Jailed
African National Congress Women's League (South Africa)	Bank corruption; fraud; false billing	Chief Executive Officer	Prison (appealed); theft charges (dropped); fraud charges (upheld)

failures in NGO governance demonstrate the need to understand the factors contributing to NGO wrongdoing while constructing commonly accepted tactics for precautionary action and enhanced accountability. Indeed, the stakes are high for the entire sector as public trust is a key factor in NGO success. When trust erodes, calls for regulations increase. Additionally, negative blows to NGO reputations result in lessened financial resources and constricted leadership resources, as existing board members resign and potential replacements refuse to serve (Gibelman and Gelman, 2001). The trend toward greater accountability has only increased since high profile nongovernmental organizations have continued betraying the public's trust into the twenty-first century, as indicated in Table 2.9.

Related to these weaknesses and challenges is the larger issue of NGO leadership. Drawing from his study of Malawian civil society, James (2003) drew a direct correlation between the organizational performances of NGOs and the quality of their leadership. Chang (2005) agreed stating that these kinds of NGO problems are directly linked to lacking management quality, which can be improved by creating appropriated training and education programs for NGO staff and volunteers.

2.5.2 The benefits of and barriers to learning in NGOs

The benefits of NGO learning have been well documented. Ebrahim and Ortolano's (2001) case study of India's Navinchandra Mafatlal Sadguru Water and Development Organization (Sadguru) revealed how, following a commitment to organizational learning, a training institute was established to extend Sadguru's organizational learning to other NGOs in the region. This endeavor, in turn, accelerated the accomplishment of Sadguru's own organizational goals. Farber (2001) and Keith (2000), in studies of health care-related NGOs, documented how well-designed training programs advanced NGOs by strengthening volunteer recruitment, retention, personal growth and performance quality.

Increased NGO effectiveness at poverty alleviation relates directly to the ability to learn. Exemplifying "the learning NGO", Jute Works in Bangladesh embraced organizational learning to enable it to engage successfully in an ever-changing environment. As a result, Jute Works' increased effectiveness in addressing poverty, combined with its commitment to public accountability, garnered global attention that translated to additional aid flows (Lewis, 1998).

Yet, a study conducted of more than three thousand NGOs in the United States revealed a chronic lack of management training for staff charged with day-to-day operational responsibilities (Schoenberger, 1998). The lack of learning commitments in NGOs extracts great tolls on those organizations as indicated by Hillhorst (2003), who suggested that training and accreditation for NGO workers could enhance the quality of delivering humanitarian assistance.

NGO learning builds on the presupposition that all organizations need a set of skills for survival in an increasingly fast-paced world, but some NGOs are unfortunately afflicted with "learning disabilities" (Senge, 1990). In the NGO community, Fowler (1997) assessed that these disabilities were found in an inability to learn, an unwillingness to adapt and a lacking commitment to continuous improvement. However, a commitment to organizational learning would help NGOs better understand their contexts so that they would excel at attaining their goals and objectives, as supported by Myers (1999:155):

Holistic practitioners need to develop a deep understanding of the complexity of poverty and its many dimensions and expressions ... Balancing the need to learn from the community and to take its indigenous knowledge seriously with the equally true fact that the holistic practitioner brings information and knowledge the community needs is a serious and continuing challenge.

Edwards and Fowler (2003) agreed that the antidote to NGO organizational challenges is education when assessing the “key component” in assuring organizational effectiveness to be the development staff. They added that NGOs must learn from others in order to meet new challenges or risk irrelevance. NGOs must develop the discipline of learning from their circumstances and those of others, but they also must implement change lest the new knowledge remain inert and the organization become unable to advance its goals (Ebrahim and Ortolano, 2001).

A commitment to learning is key among Senge’s (1990) five disciplines of healthy organizations, which is reinforced by Collins (2005). A group of NGO managers, queried on the benefits of learning in their organizations, developed this attractive listing: improved cohesion, increased adaptability, increased impact, increased effectiveness and efficiency, increased staff motivation, staff retention, increased ability to educate at the grassroots, enhanced creativity, and increased ability to initiate change (Britton, 1998).

Tight finances have been noted as a barrier to advanced training programs in NGOs. Chang (2005) noted that, when compared to profit organizations, NGOs often failed to have significant training budgets, opting instead for local conferences and workshops as the common solution. He suggested that the level of training at such venues, while valuable, was inadequate to the complex challenges faced by many NGO leaders.

Additional evidence suggests, however, that finances are not the only impediment to NGO learning and that worldview is a significant barrier to NGO learning. Ebrahim and Ortolano (2001) explained that NGO learning is typically slowed and restrained by a

number of factors, including the learning capabilities of NGO managers and staff, power relationships both between organizations and within an organization, and the worldviews that underlie the individual NGO leader or corporate action.

While NGO leaders are not generally opposed to the need to manage, they have not historically welcomed a corporate approach to management (Korten, 1990) that might place greater value on an organizational discipline such as corporate learning. Lewis (2001) suggests there are five reasons for NGO's reluctance to embrace this discipline.

Firstly, NGOs typically embody a predisposition to action versus reflection, which is to say that they place less value on thinking about organizational questions. Because NGO managers and voluntary staff are primarily motivated by the desire to "do something" to help address the immensity of poverty, the time and resources required by the discipline of learning can seem luxurious when the immediate need is so obvious and pressing.

Secondly, the general public and donors expect their NGO investments to be directly applied to poverty alleviation with an absolute minimum dedicated to administrative concerns. Even though this is in many cases a complete contradiction with donors' general understanding of how things work, their expectations, when combined with a growing mistrust of institutions, create pressure on organizations to minimize any activities that conflict with direct service to the intended recipients. Once again, organizational learning, as well as the staffing, time and the expense associated with it would fall beyond this narrow definition of approved expenditures.

Thirdly, NGO leaders are often people opposed to, suspicious of, or escaping mainstream values, which they perceive most perfectly embodied in traditional management thinking and practice. The personality profile of the activist NGO leaders would likely reveal someone who is simultaneously rejecting a former value system as they adopt another. That which would typically be included in the remains of a former value system would be a worldview that gained understanding in many mainstream domains of life, yet overlooked the people (and truths) at the margins of the world.

Fourthly, successful NGOs quickly and predictably develop beyond their initial informality, but rarely transform to deal with added complexities short of crisis. NGOs become increasingly complacent with successful navigation of their trying circumstances and seem to be ever fixed in the constant flux of change. Their previously noted orientation and concomitant lack of sophisticated management understanding can prevent them from rising above a crisis-to-crisis existence.

Fifthly, because the source of the challenge to change comes from the external environment, it is both rendered suspect and thereafter resisted. Because the challenges NGOs address are gargantuan in comparison with their size and abilities, along with the fact that they tend to operate cross-culturally, NGOs have a tendency to develop cultures of isolation and self-protection. These place obstacles in the way of external influences that threaten to introduce change and instability into the organizational system.

Managing change, which is a consistent fact of life in NGOs, requires different capabilities and approaches from people who typically migrate to NGO management. Whether suspicious of traditional management practice or adoptive, few are properly

Table 2.10: Synthesis of barriers to and benefits of learning in nongovernmental organizations
Sources: Chang, 2005; James, 2003; Ebrahim and Ortolano, 2001; Lewis, 2001; Farber, 2001; Keith, 2000; Khan, 1998; Britton, 1998; Fowler, 1997; Korten, 1990

Barriers to learning	Benefits of learning
Corruption and scandal	Higher management quality
Inability to learn	Well-designed training programs
Unwillingness to adapt	Education for NGO staff and volunteers
Lacking commitment to continuous improvement	Increased NGO effectiveness and performance quality
Tight finances and lacking training budgets	Increased aid flows; increased recruitment and retention
Worldviews of the individual leader and organization	Personal growth of the leader and staff

Power relationships between organizations and within the organization	Commitment to transparency and accountability; improved staff cohesion
Failure to value a corporate approach to leadership	Acceleration at achieving goals because of greater contextual understanding
A predisposition to action rather than reflection	Enhanced quality of humanitarian assistance
Donors' expectations that poverty alleviation work does not include overhead expense	Increased effectiveness and efficiency in addressing poverty
Suspicion of mainstream values, especially as embodied in traditional management	Increased adaptability; increased staff motivation; increased impact
Complacency with successfully navigating through a crisis-to-crisis orientation	Increased ability to initiate change and enhanced creativity
Resistance to threats from the external environment	Increased ability to educate at the grassroots

equipped to manage change without adequate preparation (Kelleher, MacLaren and Bisson, 1996). Because of these learning deficiencies, many NGOs lack the proper growing conditions for innovative thinking and practice, which include: lateral communication, decentralized decision-making, empowerment of grassroots staff, dedicated resources for facilitated learning and a culture that incentivizes learning with promotions, increased access to power, and enhanced opportunities for engaging organizational challenges (Kelleher et al., 1996). As a result, lack of understanding of NGO best practices can betray their good values and lead to unintended consequences emanating from their well-intended actions. Pfeiffer (2003) discovered this when conducting an ethnographic study of primary health care in Mozambique where he noted how the overabundance of NGOs and their expatriate staff and volunteer workers over the previous decade shattered the local health system and destabilized local control, which in turn inflated local social inequities. Interestingly, the barriers to NGO learning identified throughout this section are well balanced by the benefits of learning, also identified herein. Table 2.10 synthesizes this discovery.

Now that we have some understanding of needs for, barriers to and benefits of training in NGOs, we consider next the management issues that inform the training needs of NGO leaders.

2.6 MANAGEMENT ISSUES AND TRAINING NEEDS OF NGO LEADERS

Academic literature paid little attention toward the NGO sector prior to the mid-1980s. Recent research, however, demonstrates a rapidly accelerating interest in the ascent of NGOs as important players in the world of global development. This may be due to the rapid growth of NGO activity in Asia, Africa and Latin America and the increasing influence NGOs exercise at both local and global levels (Anheier and Salamon, 1998). Problematically, a minimal amount of those findings communicates a concern with the significant challenges and issues facing NGO leaders (Lewis, 2001). This may be due to a tendency among researchers to treat NGOs primarily as social units as opposed to collections of distinct personalities (Suzuki, 1998). Researchers' predominant focus is on NGOs as "single, coherent entities" (Clegg, 1989:197) and "institutional decision-makers" (March and Olsen, 1989:17). Whether or not this tendency is the primary reason that NGO management remains an undervalued aspect of scholarship, it is unfortunate given that management is the key driving force behind all organizations, profit-oriented and non-profit alike (James, 1998).

The paucity of research on the topic of NGO management is especially alarming when one considers the amount of global funds handled by NGOs. Official development aid was \$78.5 billion US dollars worldwide in 2004 with the United Nations calling for a doubling of that amount before 2015 (Dichter, 2005). Increasing percentages of these funds are being entrusted to management by NGOs due to donors' growing frustration with governments of developing countries and the corruption that compromises the impact of their portfolios of global aid. The lack of NGO management scrutiny, including inadequate accountability practices, carries the threat of a reversion to previously failed policies or the reversal of aid flows altogether (Easterly, 2006).

Carr, McAuliffe and MacLachlan (1998) state that aid programs fail because of either neglectful or naive leadership, or because of what they call “the human factor”. Such neglect or naivety is apparent in both donors and recipients. By securing funds designated for poverty alleviation, Zaire’s Mobutu Sese Seko, president of the world’s eighth poorest nation, became one of the world’s wealthiest people. Sese Seko, while dismissing thousands of teachers due to budget cuts, amassed nearly four billion dollars in personal assets from International Monetary Fund (IMF) funds to Zaire (Boon, 1996). However, governments and leaders who misappropriate the poor’s portion do not work in isolation. They are enabled by the deficiencies of donor nations and organizations. Easterly (2006) argues that greater accountability and transparency would ensure that both governments and NGOs employed fewer ineffective approaches.

Kelleher et al. (1996) predicted that the current environment threatens the very existence of NGOs if they fail to adjust to heightened expectations from donors. Because of changes to the funding paradigms, those NGOs, which demonstrate poor accountability or dated management approaches, are at risk of losing their funding, and thus their relevance. The poor results of government-entrusted investments precipitated a search for alternative placement of aid funds, which pressured NGOs to improve their own management practices (Edwards and Hulme, 1992). Fresh in-flows of vast amounts of charitable capital combined with donors’ increasing expectations of performance sparked serious interest in the topics of efficiency, accountability and effectiveness within NGOs (Fowler, 1997). Therefore, NGO leaders need to develop sophisticated financial management capabilities to assure the best possible return on donors’ investments by assuring maximal impacts with stakeholders on the ground. These include the commitment:

- to adopt generally accepted accounting standards;
- to establish transparent governance structures that broaden boards to include community and client representation; and
- to enact performance-based standards for assessing the effectiveness of their people and programs (SustainAbility, 2005).

Professionalism, also a great challenge for many NGOs where an ad hoc style of operation has historically been the norm, is also a necessary attainment for NGO leaders. Beyond the realm of financial management and good governance, the pressure for increased professionalism is also essential in the domains of client services, public accountability and stakeholder communication (SustainAbility, 2005). The higher profile and increased aid flows to NGOs have also included increased public scrutiny and expectations. The trust relationship with the donor community, from which NGOs are resourced, depends upon responsible and transparent communication (Herman, 2005). Therefore, the ability to communicate clearly in a manner consistent with proper organizational practice is a key need for NGO managers.

NGO leaders must be strategic planners and project managers, able to execute and evaluate, with the ability to sense the pulse of the external environment, seizing upon opportunities while anticipating and preparing for potential threats (Avina, 2006). This complex challenge of navigating the local context is well-expressed by Anderson (1999:2): “The challenge we see for aid workers ... is to figure out how to do the good they mean to do without inadvertently undermining local strengths, promoting dependency and allowing aid resources to be misused.” The complexity of their working environments dictates that their planning activities reveal an understanding of context, power, innovation, self-development, trust-building, long-range perspective, political realities and the power of the status quo (Kaplan, 2003).

NGO leaders must manage across multiple cultures, including internal organizational realities, external development activities and their institutional partnership relationships. In order to achieve success, they must manage these three essential domains within the context of the country (or community) where they operate (Lewis, 2001). The sustainability of development NGOs and indeed their effectiveness in achieving their goals is based upon their abilities to manage cross-culturally (Jackson, 2003). A significant cross-cultural challenge is that of balancing the potentially competing voices of multiple stakeholders on issues of mission, ownership and action (Mirabella, 2007). NGO managers must move their organizations forward in the midst of the local context

and centrally controlled decision-making. Local operations often resist direction from international governance sources, which results in breakdowns in the organizations' strategic plan as well as donor/recipient relationships. NGO decision-making needs to find ways to wed the information available at the grassroots with the larger picture global perspective, which may be more readily apparent from a removed (headquarters) context (Herman, 2005). Lack of the ability to navigate these waters often results in tension and lacking satisfaction among all parties. Therefore, NGO leaders must operate with a clear understanding of the context within which they are working, plus the patience to engage the broad, participatory learning process of uncovering and solving problems with many ambiguous partners (Ebrahim, 2003).

In keeping with the Millennium Development Goals, NGO leaders must learn how to form multi-layer alliances across the socioeconomic spectrum to transition from restricted support for projects to broad sector support. As such they will work with poor and rich to competently and compassionately deliver services amongst increasing and decreasing aid flows, derive innovative responses to service delivery problems, and manage a broad range of relationships, including "staff, communities, governments, business sector, development agencies/donors, and partners" (Lewis, 2001). As managers of organizational meaning, leaders must construct these alliances without sacrificing their own organizational legitimacy (Anderson, 1990).

NGO leaders must learn how to navigate political realities. Because of the nature of their work, NGO leaders are constantly experiencing the political challenges of cross-boundary issues, be they between competing government departments, other NGOs or even funders. They must be prepared to deal with any limitations to their organizations' advocacy by establishing its legitimacy and doing so with political adroitness (Herman, 2005).

NGO leaders must champion their organizations in public, especially with their donor and financial support constituencies. Eisenberg (2000) notes that there has been an exodus of visionary and talented managers because of the increasing time and pressure

demanding of them for fund-raising. Often the pressure comes due to a lack of planning in part due to an inconsistent funding environment fostered by a heavy reliance on grant income (Lewis, 2001).

Acknowledging that donors' appetites and priorities change, NGO leaders must possess the ability to create alternative management strategies to meet the challenges of ever-evolving opportunities and threats. They might begin by considering how to increase their abilities to deliver more impressive outcomes, without the concomitant organizational expense. They would be well advised to develop new strategies to minimize funding risk by diversifying sources of income and exploring new financing models. They should also commit to establishing a strong brand identity in their communities and partner with those whose reputational capital helps extend their missional identities (SustainAbility, 2005).

Finally, NGO leaders should be champions of continuous learning, which ensures the pursuit of institutional vision. In the former section, NGO learning disabilities were exposed in a way that links a lack of concern for management practice with the dereliction of long-term strategic concerns. An organization that values learning will understand the peril of remaining fixed in present realities or crises. The present-only orientation leads to faulty time-management and an overstress of staffing resources. Because of its inherently unstable character, this failure to see beyond the present moment also challenges distributed decision-making and partnership building (Lewis, 2001).

In summary, the literature identifies some critical issues for which NGO managers have to be prepared. Table 2.11 synthesizes management issues and training needs of NGO leaders as broadly indicated in the scholarly literature. These topics are among the cornerstones of development NGO management and should form the foundational aspects of economic development education programs.

Table 2.11: Management issues and training needs of nongovernmental organization leaders

Sources: Mirabella, 2007; SustainAbility, 2005; Herman, 2005; Avina, 2003; Kaplan, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Ebrahim, 2003; Lewis, 2001; Eisenberg, 2000

Issues	Needs	Sub-skills	Sources
Accountability	Sophisticated financial management ability	Principles of good governance	SustainAbility, 2005
Transparency	Clear and consistent communications	Community, donor and public relations	Herman, 2005
Donor's return on investment	Adherence to accounting standards	Performance-based standards	SustainAbility, 2005
Complexity of NGO work environments	Strategic planning	Project management	Avina, 2003; Kaplan, 2003
Management across multiple cultures	Cross-cultural management skills	Participatory learning and problem solving	Lewis, 2001; Ebrahim, 2003
Changing donor interests and aid flows	Partnership and alliance building	Entrepreneurship	Lewis, 2001; Anderson, 1990
Political realities and challenges	Political advocacy	Community organizing	Herman, 2005
Fund promotion	Presentation skills	Financial planning	SustainAbility, 2005
Addressing threats and opportunities	Creative problem solving	Corporate branding	SustainAbility, 2005
Learning disabilities	Continuous learning	Distributed leadership	Lewis, 2001

2.7 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

NGO management education has largely been a recent phenomenon, with its first appearances in the academic literature occurring in the last twenty-five years (Lewis, 2001). Previously, development NGO managers who sought learning opportunities relied upon the transliteration of for-profit management concepts and strategies into their particular contexts. This practice has met with mixed results. Development management is distinct from for-profit management in that the former's primary focus is on the achievement of social goals external to the organization as opposed to internal clients, such as shareholders and owners (Thomas, 1996).

There is little disagreement on this point in the literature. Suzuki (1998), in his detailed look inside NGOs, concluded that NGOs must focus on serving people outside their organizations. Vakil (1997) added further definition to these comments by insisting that NGO clients are distinctly disadvantaged people. According to Chang (2005), NGOs manage global disaster relief and humanitarian assistance, which are subjects rarely covered in for-profit management programs.

In the early stages, development management education was largely informal, taking place via associations, workshops, and conferences. In the 1980s, occasional NGO management newsletters offered helpful tips for NGO managers. One of the earliest was started by the International Council for Voluntary Agencies in Geneva (ICVA, 2009). Other publications followed from the UK and the USA, compliments of the International NGO Research and Training Center and the Institute of Development Research, respectively. The developing world also had its contributors, including the Organization of Rural Associations for Progress in Zimbabwe and the Society of Participatory Research in India (Lewis, 2001).

2.7.1 The growing role of higher education in economic development education

In addition to non-formal education providers, universities have become increasingly involved as significant development actors in economic development education. According to Mirabella (2007:111):

The growth in nonprofit organizations (NPOs) and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) has been accompanied by a concomitant growth in the number of education and training programs both preparing managers for a career in these organizations and supporting current managers to lead these organizations ... Civil society organizations have needed to become active learning organizations to address the complexity of their work. Apart from their internal learning, they have sought external learning.

The United Nations encouraged this developing global movement at its 57th General Assembly session in December 2002, when it declared the coming ten years the *Decade of Education for Sustainable Development*. Among the many goals and objectives developed in support of this global initiative was the increase in the quality and quantity of educational programs related to sustainable development (Tilbury, 2007).

Accordingly, Holzbaur (2005) observed the increasing involvement of German universities in encouraging innovation and entrepreneurship leading to sustainable economic development. These universities' civic engagement initiatives included management education, modeling and research. This was consistent with a global movement to encourage the inclusion of service (or community) learning in higher education curricula across the professions.

In South Africa, community engagement is viewed as a key performance area in higher education, along with teaching and research. Recent higher education reforms in South Africa called for the establishment of a system that fostered the "social, economic and political development of South African society" (Higgs, 2004; Waghid, 2004; Fehnel, 2002). Indeed, the University of KwaZulu-Natal's School of Development in South Africa provides development studies coursework that directly addresses social concerns, including racial inequality, poverty, economic growth in different populations, and institutional failures that contribute to poverty ([University of KwaZulu-Natal](#), 2009).

Australia and New Zealand have realized a growth in university programs responding to the civil society sector's need for enhanced credentials delivered in a high quality fashion. As the State-to-NGO shift in social service provision occurs, with funds transitioning from program grants to contracts, new managerial expectations have formed professional qualifications, which NGO sector leaders will need to acquire (Mirabella, 2007).

In Brazil's UPIS-Faculdades Integradas Third Sector Management Program, one objective is for students to get beyond focusing on a management for survival approach

for the development sector in order to reflect on “the factors that directly influence the management of non-profit organizations ... toward the common good” (UPIS-Falculdades Integradas, 2009).

Mirabella (2007) conducted extensive research on NGO sector education. Two hundred and forty universities and colleges in the United States have educational programs for nonprofit organizations. Beyond the US, there are 189 universities and colleges globally that provide nonprofit management education, which would include economic development education programs. They rank this way: Europe and Eastern Mediterranean = 38%; Africa = 28%; Asia and Pacific = 15%; followed by Canada, Latin America, Middle East, South Asia and Australasia.

By international standards, Africa is the least developed region in terms of higher education institutions and enrollments (Teferra and Altbach, 2004). A continent of 54 countries, it has only 300 universities. Impressively, though included in those are 52 programs in development studies, evenly split between undergraduate and graduate programs. Most universities are located in eastern and southern Africa, with thirty-five percent (18) of Africa’s programs located in South Africa. Kenya and Uganda are next with five programs each.

Curricularly, the Western model (US and Europe) differs from the African one in that the former emphasizes skills for management of development organizations, whereas the latter focuses on skills for development with very little attention given to management at all. Additionally, scholarship on governance or human organization issues in development NGOs in the global South is desperately lacking when compared to third sector (nonprofit) organization research in their northern equivalents (Lewis, 2001).

2.7.2 Challenges to access and the promises of distance education approaches

Because most of the existing university-based programs (including certificate, bachelors and masters levels) are based in resource-rich North America and Western Europe, fewer

options are available on the ground in the developing world where the need is greatest (Mirabella, 2007). Illustratively, despite having the greatest number of social sector organizations of any country in the developing world, India possesses only three academically based development programs. By contrast, while Africa boasts fifty-two such programs, twenty-seven of Africa's forty-seven countries lack any university-based program for preparing NGO leaders (Mirabella et al., 2007).

The unevenness of accessibility of economic development education where the need is greatest presents a tremendous challenge. NGO leaders manage organizations in nearly all of the world's countries and speak as many languages (SustainAbility, 2005). For NGO leaders not located in North America, Western Europe or South Africa, economic development education options may seem remote.

Several additional challenges remain, however, that continue to frustrate the ability of NGO leaders to access economic development education. A study of Eastern European NGO managers found that their academic preparations were widely varying, and only a minority had any formal business training. Because most rose to authority based on accomplishments in service at the grassroots, these NGO leaders typically lacked the financial or management coursework required for admission to the MBA or studies in management (Lukes et al., 2006).

Context further complicates instruction and challenges economic development management education. East Asian understandings of the teacher/student dynamic can complicate pedagogical styles derived in the West, which assume a degree of collegial interactivity (Wong, Shen, and McGeorge, 2002). Culturally based hierarchical delineations in Indian or Hispanic cultures can make conducting a socio-economically diverse class extremely challenging (Mellahi, 2000). Diverse religious understandings of gender roles may dictate against blended classes. Just as challenging for educators is how context defines transferable values, which, "... makes it difficult to draw NGO management lessons from a specific country context ... and unthinkingly apply them to other country contexts" (Lewis, 2001:6).

Finally, one of the greatest challenges to economic development management education is staff turnover in NGOs, both voluntary and involuntary (Rugendyke, 2007). Resource fluctuations boost involuntary turnover. Because NGO resources are often project-based and donor-driven, a paradox exists between NGO staff training and organizational requirements. Organizations typically encourage staff training upon the presumption of return on investment, such as longevity of service, with the organization. Erratic income flows, however, often require NGOs to place a higher premium on flexibility (hiring and firing) than on longevity. The other contributor to staff turnover is voluntary separation because staff who receive higher levels of management training are more attractive to other organizations. As a result, some NGOs hesitate to make that investment (Suzuki, 1998).

2.8 SUMMARY

This literature review surveyed and critiqued existing scholarship relating to non-governmental organizations (NGOs), their leaders' management needs, the challenges of addressing those needs and the variety (and adequacy) of existing educational responses in economic development.

The following summary statements identify several key findings of this review of the literature:

- until recently, NGO management scholarship has been neglected;
- the need for NGO management education is both critical and timely;
- the benefits of NGO learning offset the barriers to the same;
- the competencies required for NGO leadership have been identified;
- of the many economic development programs in existence, fewer are located where the need is greatest; and
- challenges exist to delivering economic development education to NGO leaders.

Varied programs in economic development education for NGO leaders are available in a distance-learning delivery model including the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree. The reasons for its applicability to the needs of NGO leaders and the Eastern University MBA program under review will both be the focus of the following section.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW, PART TWO

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The growth of NGOs both in size and in numbers has been accelerating at a hastening pace, especially since 1990. In the same period, higher education institutions have opportunistically launched new academic programs in development education to address the rising demand for training. Scholarship production has begun to grow to match new realities, but is generally focused on NGO organizations, their roles and the challenges they face amidst rapid change. Interestingly, scholarship is lacking concerning the efficacy of graduate-level development leadership programs for NGO leaders, an increasingly popular option at colleges and universities. This research will begin that important curricular conversation.

The preceding chapter contained the first portion of a two-part literature review and centered on surveying and synthesizing existing scholarship relating to non-governmental organizations (NGOs), their leaders' management needs, the challenges of addressing those needs and the variety (and adequacy) of existing educational resources.

This chapter combines the broad understanding of the field of study provided in Chapter Two with a specialized orientation toward conceptualizing a framework for implementing and evaluating an MBA in economic development for NGO leaders. This approach advances the field of development education by addressing a practical and theoretical problem, which is expressed in the lack of scholarship on graduate-level economic development education. Economic development education theory and practice will be enriched accordingly.

The first section of this chapter examines global MBA programs in their many diverse applications as responses to the management needs of development NGO leaders. It discusses criticisms of the application of profit-oriented or Western-biased programs to

the needs of NGO leaders from the developing world. It considers the role of Christianity as a foundational motivation for many global NGOs and the challenges management education and religion have experienced in finding common ground. Finally, it reveals the cross-cultural issues in greater depth along with the need for NGO management education that is mission-driven, transnational, globally accessible, affordable and applicable in a variety of global contexts.

The second section describes the program that is the focus of this research, the Eastern University MBA in economic development, one of the older economic development graduate programs in existence, now in its twenty-fifth year. A recounting of the history, curriculum, delivery system, student and alumni bodies and the intervention plan of 2002 provides the context for succeeding study.

Working from an understanding of the needs and challenges of NGO leaders and the availability of economic development education established at the end of the previous chapter, the following section makes the case for the MBA degree as a fitting vehicle for preparing NGO leaders to lead their development organizations.

3.2 THE MBA AS A RESPONSE TO THE MANAGEMENT NEEDS OF DEVELOPMENT NGO LEADERS

At the turn of the new millennium, business educators and professional organizations celebrated the centennial of the MBA degree. With one hundred years of history and accomplishment behind it, there exists no more popular approach to management education than the MBA degree (Yang and Lu, 2001). For many, the MBA is without equal as the passport to organizational management (Carnall, 1992). This is true well beyond the borders of the United States where the MBA was created, with South Africa being the leader of management education in sub-Saharan Africa (World Economic Forum, 2009).

3.2.1 Aims of MBA programs

The literature contains a diverse accounting of the chief aims of MBA programs. These views, while distinct, represent the researchers' multi-faceted perceptions of the complementary capabilities required by those who lead organizations. These capabilities include the delivery of increased understanding of the business world and enriched skills and competencies required by that world (Baruch and Leeming, 2001). MBA programs should teach leadership, communication and interpersonal skills (Adrian and Palmer, 1999). They should produce well-rounded team players through exposure to "real-life" experiences and interdisciplinary curricular approaches (Lord, 1997) and people who excel in a hands-on environment (Haynes and Setton, 1998). Critical-thinking skills and the ability to process and generalize vast amounts of information are expected of MBA graduates (Duff, 2003). Additionally, MBA programs should produce decision-makers who can communicate clearly (Smart, Kelly and Conant, 1999).

A criticism leveled at MBAs in recent literature suggests that such a broad list of MBA program aims contributes to curricular dilution and a failure to provide MBA graduates with an adequate grasp of the knowledge, skills and abilities required for success.

One problem, we believe, is the assumption underlying normative² MBA programs that there is a single knowledge set that all MBA students should acquire. MBA programs prepare students for a variety of professional business positions ... These very different positions require unique skill sets that are not adequately covered in normative MBA programs (Kleiman and Kass, 2007:82).

² Kleiman and Kass (2007) defined the normative MBA curricula as that which resulted from the confluence of two key developments. Firstly, following World War II, MBAs aimed to hasten the integration of returning war veterans into business leadership by establishing a common set of core courses reflecting business functions. However, after these programs received little academic respect, they were amended with the insertion of the scientific method and quantitative analysis. The resulting blend has remained relatively unchanged and remains the core of most MBAs.

In harmony with this perspective, specialized MBAs have grown in popularity in recent years. These programs include preparation for management in disciplines as diverse as government, healthcare and nonprofit organizations. This perspective opens the possibility of considering the MBA's appropriateness for NGOs.

3.2.2 The MBA and developing nations

Brockhaus (1991) identified the potential of entrepreneurship for developing nations and distressed communities in North America. As most governments have sought to transition their roles to reduce public spending and related foreign debt, they have increasingly turned to the private sector and encouraged small businesses to become the main engines of future economic development. For example, in South Africa the MBA fuels hopes for "... the accelerated development of a new stratum of black and women professionals to fulfill the management and leadership needs of the public and private sectors" (Singh, Lange and Naidoo, 2004:200).

Increasingly, global MBA programs have focused their attention on the opportunity to prepare the future leaders and managers of emerging economies. Transnational programs are experiencing rapid growth, exemplified by the more than 140 000 international students attending British universities outside of the United Kingdom (Altbach, 2004), many of whom are receiving "British" educations through international collaborations that include program franchising, cross-registration and partnerships (Anderson and Maharasoja, 2002). These programs take many forms, including the traditional approach of adding branch campuses, creating collaborative ventures and delivering education by computer-based distance-learning technology.

To address the challenge of accessibility, higher education institutions are increasingly engaging distance education as a means of traversing the hurdles to higher education experienced by NGO leaders (Bocci et al., 2004). The movement toward distance learning suits the situation of many NGO leaders.

Distance learning is used because most of the time teachers and students are physically separate from each other. Distance learning gives flexibility to students who have competing professional and personal commitments and permits instruction in several countries. Advanced technology allows teachers and students to remain in close communication throughout the course (Davies, Deeny and Raikkonen, 2003:355).

The distance-learning option is growing most rapidly as new generations of students, or “digital natives” come of age (Prensky, 2001). However, faculty (conversely called “digital immigrants”), must be willing to teach differently because understanding and competence in the use of interactive technology is essential to succeeding with this emerging pedagogical approach (Connaughton, Lawrence and Ruben, 2003). The reward for their efforts will be immediate, as research has demonstrated that the use of information technology improves international business education by stimulating faculty innovation, enhancing student assessment, and strengthening communication and collaboration between students and faculty (Paul and Mukhalopadhyay, 2001).

Distance education MBAs have grown in popularity in recent years and take many forms. Initially suspected by educators as lacking the academic quality of their residential predecessors (Thomas, 2000), recent research, though mixed, has trended toward affirming their legitimate place in the constellation of academic options (Hollenbeck et al., 2005; Hudson and Young, 2002; Mintu-Wamsatt, 2001). Distance education MBAs are particularly effective with adult students who are engaged in, or otherwise unable to separate from, full-time employment or critical responsibilities (Bocci, Eastman and Swift, 2004). Distance education MBAs are also able to lower the cost of program delivery, which makes them particularly attractive to those with limited financial resources (Hollenbeck et al., 2005). Additionally, distance education programs offer the hope of bridging the digital divide that separates millions from the opportunities of higher education (Weigel, 2002). These program benefits satisfy the requirements of many NGO leaders from developing countries. Because most distance MBAs include a modest level of physical interaction among students and between them and faculty, most

available research focuses on those programs which rarely cross national borders (Dean, Stahl, Sylvester and Peat, 2001). A body of research is assembling, however, which addresses MBA programs which are:

- (1) both global and partnership-oriented (Wong et al., 2002; Nelson and Yeager, 2001; Pollack, 1998) and
- (2) completely virtual, thus negating the potential impact of geography on assembling a student body (Walden and Turban, 2000; Evans, 1995).

3.2.3 Cross-cultural challenges of MBA programs

The numerical success of global MBA programs is deceiving if one fails to consider the challenges they experience, mostly due to the conflicts between worldviews. Faculty who fail to see that the teaching of leadership is highly ethnocentric do so at their own peril. Chunk, Kwok and Arpan (1994) attribute the failure of transnational western MBA programs to lacking faculty expertise and a low interest in international philosophies and practices. A dearth of publication on cross-cultural management leadership theories, values and norms is undoubtedly a contributing factor to failed attempts to communicate business concepts across cultures (House and Aditya, 1997). Figure 3.1 demonstrates how the northern business values of empowerment, performance management, rationality, delegation and visionary direction contrast with the opposing values in many Asian, Arab and African cultures of harmony, conformity, loyalty, consensus, tolerance, forgiveness, consideration and face-saving (Mellahi, 2000).

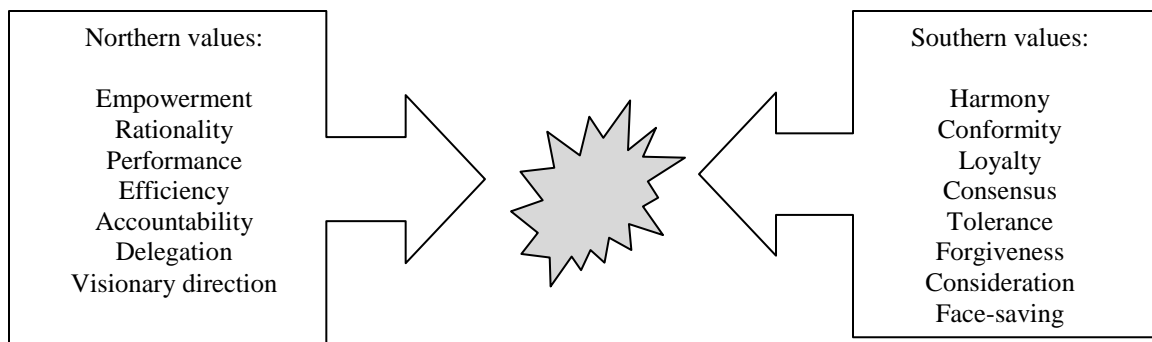


Figure 3.1: The potential for cultural clash between northern and southern business values

Source: Mellahi, 2000

However, new evidence is mounting, and a growing body of knowledge is forming to address this deficiency. Research on global business education seems to be massing most quickly on East Asia (Goodall et al., 2004; Chen, 2002; Blunt and Merrick, 1997). A study of Western MBA degrees offered in Malaysia identified that, despite certain culturally based dynamics and tensions, such degrees remain a highly valued commodity (Sturdy and Gabriel, 2000). The complex philosophical foundation of business management values among Hong Kong's leaders reveals how business practice in China is deeply dependent upon its Confucian, Daoist, Mohist and Legalist religious traditions, all of which differ significantly from Western styles of leadership (Cheung and Chan, 2005). Therefore, it may be surprising to learn of the rapidly accelerating appeal of Western MBA's in China in recent years (Goodall et al., 2004). Perhaps the value MBAs afford to their holders far outweighs the challenges of philosophical disconnection.

The answer to the cultural tension inherent with transnational education might be found in selective sampling. Emerging leaders of developing countries might best foster development by seizing upon that which they value from the West without sacrificing lessons learned from their own histories. Boon (1996:52) argued this point of his native South Africa, "We do not have to choose. We can have tribal and First World features at the same time". Crawley (2003), who pioneered a cross-cultural graduate program in Lesotho, found that her students possessed the cultural wisdom required to modify a Western program into one with culturally specific Afrocentric conceptualizations. Both Boon and Crawley remind us of the diverse worlds NGO leaders inhabit, the complexity of the cultural skills required for successfully navigating their many nuanced realities and the need for management education to embrace a more empathetic approach to instruction. Jackson (2003) strikes a similar position when calling for a movement in African management practice from post-colonial (based on coercion) to humanistic (based on value-driven leadership and involvement) management systems that mirror indigenous approaches and sentiments.

3.2.4 Religious worldviews and MBA programs

Adding value to (or challenging) the outcomes of the typical MBA program are the underlying assumptions upon which a program resides, otherwise known as its worldview. This consideration is increasingly relevant as faith-oriented NGOs grow in their global influence. While it is impossible to know the precise global breakdown of NGOs working from a faith versus a secular orientation, a recent report from India's Ministry of Home Affairs documented that four of the top five (and eight of the top fifteen) donor agencies in that country were Christian in orientation (Hindu Press International, 2007). Indeed, faith-based NGOs are both numerous and impactful, as referenced by Ferris (2005:325):

Faith-based organizations are unique players in the international humanitarian community in that they are rooted in their local communities and yet have global reach. Their large constituencies give faith-based organizations the potential to play a powerful role in advocacy and public awareness. With their presence on the ground, in the most remote parts of every country, they are well positioned to take action when emergencies arise.

The history of business education reveals a love/hate affair with faith and values. In the wake of corporate scandal or national tragedy, ethical values gain attractiveness. Enron's meltdown and the impact of international terrorism in America have led many to question whether MBA programs are focusing enough resources on helping future business leaders articulate their corporate values (Mangan, 2002). Clearly, this is a point of debate for many institutions. For some institutions, however, the commitment to integrating values with business is firm. The University of Detroit Mercy (UDM), for example, has built on its Jesuit traditions of faith and social justice to create an innovative, gateway MBA course entitled "Personal Development and Social Responsibility", which translates the UDM mission into a blueprint for ethical business behavior (Hazen, Cavanagh and Bossman, 2004). The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), the international business school accrediting body, encourages this

behavior by advising all member institutions to develop curricula that reflect their missional commitments (AACSB, 2008).

3.2.5 The rationale for a specialized MBA program for NGO leaders

While NGO leaders and educators may glean nuggets from existing MBA program effectiveness studies, predictably most MBA program research focuses on strategies for success in the for-profit sector. Even the growing numbers of studies on MBAs in the developing world are similarly oriented (Goodall et al., 2004). A recent report on South Africa's MBA programs by its Council on Higher Education identifies a disconnect with this approach, assessing that for-profit MBAs worldwide give, "... the impression that business schools are not encouraging social responsibility in business education but actually remain 'brainwashing institutions educating their graduates only in the relatively narrow shareholder value ideology' (in Blackmur, 2007:603). An explanation for this assessment may be that "proprietary (for-profit) concerns have avoided involvement in human services, in part because there has historically been little profit to be made" (Gibelman and Gelman, 2001:55).

While they share a body of knowledge in common by virtue of both being human organizations, NGOs are largely distinct from for-profit organizations and the MBAs that prepare business leaders. Toward the end of his life, Drucker redirected his remaining energies from for-profit business to writing on the specific needs of nonprofit leaders (Drucker 2006). Drucker's interest in nonprofit organizations was due to his conviction that they gave purpose to modern societies and fostered innovation that strengthened communities, tasks that businesses unfortunately avoided (Lenkowsky, 2005).

Similarly, Collins published a monograph to address the peculiar management and leadership issues of social sector (also known as nonprofit or nongovernmental) organizations, which he admitted overlooking in his renowned business text, *Good to Great*. In that word, he identified leadership and financial management issues as key

distinguishers between the for-profit and non-profit sectors (2005). Chang (2005:448) elaborated on these and others:

In a nonprofit organization, a changing work environment, the often part-time nature of the professional staff, the scarcity of budgetary resources, and the inherent limitations of the volunteer role make for a climate of “impermanence and improvisation” (Hutchinson and Quartaro in Chang, 2005). Thus there are limits to the extent to which voluntary organizations can follow the same standards as profit organizations.

Both NGOs and for-profit organizations may be described as organized, private, and self-governing organizations. NGOs, however, are differentiated by being largely voluntary in nature and nonprofit-distributing in character (Anheier and Salamon, 1998). Additionally, NGOs in developing countries tend to arouse greater government suspicion than for-profit businesses and, hence, encounter “increased government scrutiny” and “control” (Anheier and Salamon, 1998:360).

In 2002, the United Nations General Assembly declared the coming ten-year period, “... the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD) ... as an important vehicle for promoting education for sustainable development (ESD) within all areas of learning ... from all generations and among all sectors” (UNESCO in Tilbury, 2007:240). The objective of the United Nations DESD declaration was to ensure adequate progress toward satisfying the Millennium Development Goals of radically reducing global poverty. In the DESD, the world’s nations have unified to make a powerful statement with one voice in a call for the world’s educational institutions to include the study of development in their curricula. An MBA program, when augmented to focus on the distinctive task of equipping NGO leaders for development work, complies with the UN’s global intent.

Table 3.1 synthesizes the skills required by NGO leaders as previously reported in Table 2.11 with the findings about the curricular aims of MBA programs as discussed in 3.2.1.

This display reveals that a general description of MBA programs' chief aims satisfies the general skill sets required by NGO leaders, as reported in the scholarly literature.

Table 3.1: Required nongovernmental leader skills compared with chief aims of MBA programs

Sources: Mirabella, 2007; Avina, 2006; SustainAbility, 2005; Herman, 2005;; Kaplan, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Ebrahim, 2003; Duff, 2003; Eisenberg, 2000; Lewis, 2001; Baruch and Leeming, 2001; Adrian and Palmer, 1999; Smart et al., 1999; Haynes and Setton, 1998; Lord, 1997

Required NGO leader skills	Chief aims of MBA programs
Sophisticated financial management ability	Business skills and competencies; process vast amounts of information
Clear and consistent communications	Leadership; communication skills
Adherence to accounting standards	Business skills and competencies; process vast amounts of information
Strategic planning	Decision-making and critical thinking skills
Cross-cultural management skills	Interpersonally skilled; interdisciplinary approach; excel in hands-on environment
Partnership and alliance building	Team players; entrepreneurial; excel in hands-on environment
Political advocacy	Leadership; communication skills; process vast amounts of information

The MBA is the most highly respected management degree currently in existence (Baruch and Leeming, 2001). Despite its strong tradition, it offers a level of flexibility for enrichment with mission-oriented coursework and cross-cultural adaptation. Recognizing this diversity of programming, individual institutions are expected to assess whether they have successfully prepared students for the types of careers envisioned in their mission statements. Accordingly, even though authorities have not identified “tools or formats specifically prescribed for the assessment process”, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) requires its member institutions to provide such evidence (Kleiman and Kass, 2007:92). This

AACSB expectation creates an opportunity for the creation of an evaluative framework for NGO-oriented management programs wishing to comply with generally accepted standards of excellence.

The Eastern University MBA program in economic development endeavors to achieve what the AACSB advised by combining a core of management study with a distinct mission orientation and cross-cultural approach (see Appendix 18). For these and other reasons to be explored in the next section and future chapters, the MBA in economic development at Eastern University provides the focus for this research.

3.3 THE EASTERN UNIVERSITY MBA IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Global economic development for the sake of poverty alleviation is currently very popular around the globe with celebrities championing causes and adopting nations, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. In contrast, the Eastern University economic development program was launched with little fanfare a quarter century ago in 1984.

Because of advances in global communication technology, we are now awash in images of persistent poverty throughout much of the world. Bono and Geldof recently reminded us of poverty's crippling effects through a public campaign that convinced the leaders of developed nations to write off the debts of some of the most impoverished developing nations and by their response, governments and global institutions are complying (Vallely, 2006). However, twenty-five years ago, at the time Muhammed Yunus was quietly birthing the Grameen Bank to extend microloans to the poor in Bangladesh (Yunus, 2003), an MBA infused by a similar spirit was being birthed in America.

3.3.1 History of the program

In 1984, Eastern University sociologist, Dr. Tony Campolo, engaged developing nations' mission leaders and envisioned what he called a "Third Wave" of missionaries, people who would deliver both spiritual and economic hope to the world's poor communities (Campolo, 1985). Mr. Al Whittaker, former president of the Bristol Myers Corporation, lent his support to the initiative and agreed to chair the program's first advisory committee. As Mr. Whittaker traveled the world for business, his conscience was challenged by the poverty he witnessed in countries where his consumer goods were

produced. He would go on to found Opportunity International, which would become one of the world's largest micro-enterprise development NGOs (Opportunity International, 2009).

Campolo's vision was given form by Dr. Linwood Geiger, Eastern University's Distinguished Professor of Economics and eventual Fulbright Scholar at Beijing University, who crafted the initial MBA curriculum. Finally, the vision was funded by President Robert Seiple, who would amass foundation, corporate and individual donations to underwrite the new program before leaving Eastern University to preside over World Vision International, the world's largest Christian-based relief and development organization with work in ninety countries (Eastern University, 2004b).

The Economic Development program has many children – at Eastern and elsewhere. The graduate programs in Nonprofit Management, Urban Economic Development, NGO Leadership and Urban Studies and the undergraduate program in International Development are its offspring (Eastern University, 2009). DAI (Development Associates International), an NGO-training institution, was created by program alumni and is now starting similar indigenous programs with hundreds of NGO leadership students in Indian and African colleges and universities. Program partnerships with Habitat for Humanity, World Vision International and the English Language Institute for China have trained hundreds of their employees at multiple locations on five continents (Eastern University, 2002).

When Boris Yeltsin mounted a tank in Red Square to cement his place in history as the future president of a new Russia, a team of Eastern economic development faculty was in Moscow creating MBA curricula and training business faculty at seven Russian universities (Eastern College, 1992a). Economic development faculty have responded to invitations to teach at institutions as disparate as Cornerstone Christian College in Cape Town and Harvard University. At Atlanta's Beulah Heights Bible College, hundreds of East African and African-American students collaboratively prepare to serve their

communities in a program fashioned by an Eastern alumna after her alma mater's (Beulah Heights University, 2009).

3.3.2 Curricular overview

The purpose of the MBA in economic development's curriculum is to train Christian practitioners in the economic, financial, and business aspects of economic development. The program is rooted in a Christ-centered approach that recognizes the multifaceted causes of poverty and the need for holistic intervention strategies that address the underlying economic, social, cultural, political and spiritual challenges. Therefore, economic development courses build on four core areas, including financial management, program, spiritual and international/urban core course requirements.

The financial management core includes six required courses. Courses and the concepts covered are listed in Table 3.2 and compared with the needs of development NGO leaders previously indicated in Table 2.11.

Table 3.2: Eastern University MBA in economic development: financial management core courses and NGO leader needs

Sources: Eastern University, 2009; Mirabella, 2007; Avina, 2006; ustainAbility, 2005; Herman, 2005;; Kaplan, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Ebrahim, 2003; Lewis, 2001; Eisenberg, 2000

Financial management core courses	Concepts covered	NGO leader needs
Managerial accounting for developing enterprises	The legal environment of business accounting; tax regulations; tax planning for international NGOs	Adherence to accounting standards; sophisticated financial management ability; good governance
Global financial management	Theoretical and practical frameworks for financial management	Sophisticated financial management ability; financial planning
Social entrepreneurship	New organization design and communication through a business plan	Entrepreneurship; strategic planning; presentation skills
Introduction to microfinance	Assessing customer needs and expectations; designing new products and delivery mechanisms; lending	Participatory learning and problem solving; community, donor and public relations; sophisticated

	methodologies; regulation and supervision; assessing portfolio quality; gauging financial viability; governance; cultivating effective donor relations	financial management ability; adherence to accounting standards; principles of good governance; partnership and alliance building
Market development for microenterprises	Current theory, best practices and debates in the market development	Cross-cultural management skills; participatory learning and problem solving
Program planning, management and marketing	Theory and practice of program planning, monitoring, implementation, and evaluation in NGOs, with grants, fundraising, and marketing methods	Strategic planning; performance-based standards; clear and consistent communication

The program core includes three required courses. Courses and the concepts covered are listed in Table 3.3 and compared with the needs of development NGO leaders previously indicated in Table 2.11.

Table 3.3: Eastern University MBA in economic development: program core courses and NGO leader needs Sources: Eastern University, 2009; Mirabella, 2007; Avina, 2006; SustainAbility, 2005; Herman, 2005;; Kaplan, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Ebrahim, 2003; Lewis, 2001; Eisenberg, 2000.

Program core courses	Concepts covered	NGO leader needs
Cross-cultural skills and understanding	Theories of culture; social systems and the role of religion in the economic development process; and practice of cross-cultural communication	Cross-cultural management skills; distributed leadership; clear and consistent communications; community, donor and public relations
Community development	Theories of community development and practice; assess, source, mobilize and utilize resources, assets, and valued goods for a community's development	Partnership and alliance building; participatory learning and problem solving; community organizing; creative problem solving
Applied research and evaluation	Applied research (primarily qualitative) and evaluation; methodologies for use in development NGOs	Strategic planning; performance-based standards; continuous learning

The spiritual core includes two required courses. Courses and the concepts covered are listed in Table 3.4 and compared with the needs of development NGO leaders previously indicated in Table 2.11.

Table 3.4: Eastern University MBA in economic development: spiritual core courses and NGO leader needs Sources: Eastern University, 2009; Mirabella, 2007; Avina, 2006; SustainAbility, 2005; Herman, 2005;; Kaplan, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Ebrahim, 2003; Lewis, 2001; Eisenberg, 2000;

Spiritual core courses	Concepts covered	NGO leader needs
Leadership and empowerment	Models and theories of leadership practices; with theological critique.	Distributed leadership; participatory learning and problem solving
Biblical faith and economics	Relating Biblical concepts to economic life	Principles of good governance; continuous learning

The international core includes three required courses. Courses and the concepts covered are listed in Table 3.5 and compared with the needs of development NGO leaders previously indicated in Table 2.11.

Table 3.5: Eastern University MBA in economic development: international core courses and NGO leader needs

Sources: Eastern University, 2009; Mirabella, 2007; Avina, 2006; SustainAbility, 2005; Herman, 2005; Kaplan, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Ebrahim, 2003; Lewis, 2001; Eisenberg, 2000;

International core courses	Concepts covered	NGO leader needs
Advocacy and human rights	Local, national and international context of advocacy work; creative partnerships; develop strong advocacy skills	Political advocacy; community organizing; cross-cultural management skills; partnership and alliance building
The world economy and trade	International economic markets, political power and culture under global interdependence	Strategic planning; continuous learning
Economic development of developing countries	Macro-economic problems of developing countries; theories, methods and techniques of economic development to promote growth of developing countries	Entrepreneurship; creative problem solving; project management; partnership and alliance building; sophisticated financial management ability; distributed leadership

3.3.3 Approach to advanced professional education

Twenty-first century advanced professional education theory proceeds upon very different understandings than in the latter part of the twentieth century. Gone is the primary assumption that learning is a cognitive process whereby facts and information are converted to knowledge that becomes evident through changed behavior. Replacing it is a more holistic understanding that perceives a broader body-mind-emotion engagement in making connections between information, sensation and experience toward the construction of memory and meaning (Taylor and Lamoreaux, 2008). Others have characterized this transition as moving from the “what” questions to the “why” (Miettinen, 2005, Nardi, 2005).

This newer approach to understanding perceives learning as a multidimensional phenomenon with serious consideration given to the postmodern values of context and narrative (Merriam, 2008). Adult education literature is increasingly populated with this expanding view of learning as a holistic endeavor that takes context seriously, including factors as divergent as issues in the workplace that enhance or inhibit learning and the power of spirituality in developing social justice transformation (Tisdell, 2008). Literature on workplace learning is similarly themed, chronicling these developments, but utilizing different terminology so that the new learning is referred to as practice-based, self-directed and transformative. Additionally, workplace learning has emancipatory value and is essential to shaping a sense of identity in an era when work environments are constantly shifting and occasionally vanishing (Fenwick, 2008).

Whether required for remaining updated amidst constant change (or avoiding redundancy in the knowledge economy), some scholars believe that the desire to learn that many professionals evince is more internally fueled. This craving for understanding is the struggle for completeness, “to fill in the blanks”, that many professionals experience as they move through their careers (Knorr Cetina, 2001). This knowledge-seeking behavior was demonstrated in a study of mid-career professionals in Norway as, “back and forth looping between theory and practice... paving the way not only for new modes of practice but also to a broader understanding of knowledge as open-ended and constantly

unfolding” (Jensen, 2007). At the base of much of this new thinking about learning is a fresh appreciation for the role of personal experience in learning that harkens back to an earlier time.

The emphasis on experience-based learning was found in the reflection-in-practice movement that was birthed in the latter part of the twentieth century. Perhaps its best-known proponent, Schon, initially sought to help clarify the tension between theory and practice-based learning in higher education-based professional education. Schon identifies what I earlier referenced in 2.3.2 as a split in the approach to development education using terminology borrowed from Fowler (macro/policy versus micro/practice orientation), as the conflict between technical rationality and reflection-in-action. Technical rationality emanates from a positivist philosophy that defines professional education as the application of scientific theory and technique to problem solving. This positivist approach birthed in German universities more than a century ago informed the great American research universities and dominated the curricular development of their professional schools. The resulting split between research (“higher learning”) and practice (“lower learning”) has held to this day and has redefined educational approaches around the globe. Alternatively, the practitioner orientation suggests that “when someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a researcher in the practice context. He is not dependent on the categories of established theory and technique, but constructs a new theory of the unique case” (Schon, 1991). This posits that there is a knowing that can only be discovered through action and reflection in specific situations. This practice-based approach leads to a humility that seems well-suited to development learning. One whose self-understanding is as a researcher-in-action (versus a theoretical/technical expert) is far more likely to learn to respond to the situational uncertainty and complexity that characterize development contexts both constructively and empathetically.

The differing understandings of advanced professional education have serious implications for academic instruction, and a prolific amount of thought has been generated on the subject. Several Eastern University scholars have offered summaries of

the emerging principles as they have contributed to organizational direction as well as the larger scholarly conversation.

Basing his argument on Sen's capabilities approach widely known in the development world and referenced several times in this dissertation, Weigel argues for four learner-focused capabilities for advanced professional education, and he challenges instructors to prepare students with the following:

- Critical thinking capability: the learner's ability to understand and manage his or her own learning processes... undergirds our ability to map unfamiliar knowledge domains and to discern plausible connections with more familiar domains.
- Self-confidence capability: as a predictor for success in terms of one's career and professional development, but also in terms of one's overall readiness to take on new learning experiences.
- Peer-learning capability: the importance of peer learning for a student's eventual success in the workplace, which often depends on strong networking skills and the ability to mine tacit knowledge stores.
- Knowledge management capability: helping students explore new frontiers of knowing and critically discerning the significance of "new" knowledge to "old" knowledge, mapping connections between more familiar knowledge domains to those that are less familiar (2005:333-338).

In his soon-to-be-published dissertation, Blair (2005) listed the following principles guiding faculty who participate in advanced professional education:

- The role of the instructor becomes that of a facilitator of learning acknowledging that advanced professional students bring considerable learning to the classroom.
- Experiential learning has great value and should be assessed and inventoried as a basis for future learning in self and others.

- The learning process is multidirectional, multilateral and multiphased, and so it becomes the instructor's job to guide the process so that students may capture the learning.
- Knowledge capture and evaluation requires an appreciation for each student's personal learning style, which should be understood and encouraged.
- Practitioner faculty bring a high, albeit different, value to the professional learning experience, but must be supported with training in instructional design methodology.

Both Weigel's and Blair's thinking are foundational to instructional design and faculty recruitment for the advanced professional programs at Eastern University, which includes the MBA in economic development program. Their principles are deployed with multiple adult populations studying at different locations, as highlighted in the following section on program delivery options.

3.3.4 Delivery options

The MBA in economic development program is offered in an accelerated sixteen-month, full-time residential format on campus in the US, which includes a three-month internship with an NGO in the developing world. This delivery approach is geared toward the person with a desire but lacking the international or management experience to serve the NGO sector. This program is a cohort model, meaning that students start together in late August and work through the program as a group. The program starts with a required orientation, which is normally held the weekend before classes begin for the initial semester.

Students enrolled in the on-campus full-time program spend twelve months in the United States at the Eastern University campus. An additional three-month field semester is spent in a developing country to complete the program. During this field semester, students secure work with a development NGO, mission organization or other church-related organization that serves poor communities. Students also complete their final course work via distance education during the field semester.

Alternatively, the MBA in economic development for NGO practitioners is a cohort-based model delivered in a thirty-six month hybrid-distance version. The hybrid-distance delivery format includes annual three-week intensive residencies held in Africa followed by forty-week on-line facilitated discussion and assignment sessions utilizing the Blackboard, Inc. course management technology. This permits NGO practitioners to earn their degree while remaining engaged in their contexts and development work.

In the hybrid-distance delivery model, students convene at a residency location away from campus, preferably on the continent where they live and work. There they meet with their professors in a classroom for an abbreviated twenty hours of face-to-face instruction for each of their four or five courses. This time is preceded by several weeks of preparation that typically includes both reading and writing assignments. The face-to-face instruction takes place in a residency of about twenty days. Most students take vacation or time away from work to attend the residency and then return to their workplace. The rest of the year is divided into eight-week, online follow-up periods for each of the classes. These periods include reading, writing and interacting through the Blackboard, Inc. on-line course management program. This delivery process is repeated annually for three years until the program is completed.

Thirteen units of study make up each course. The first five units are covered in the residency with the professor, and the final eight units are completed during the post-residency period. Faculty members serve as mentors and coaches as students learn to apply concepts from the courses to their daily work and ministry contexts. The cycle of pre-residency/residency/post-residency is illustrated in Table 3.26.

Table 3.6: Annual cycle in the international, hybrid-distance delivery format of the MBA in economic development at Eastern University

Source: Ridington and LeQuire, 2006

Time period	Tasks, instructional units
Pre-residency period	Pre-residency assignments prepare students for an intensive instruction time organized as a residency.
Intensive residency	Twenty days/four or five courses Students are with professors in class for 20 hours per course. Residency also includes some training in the principles and practices of adult education.
Post-residency period	8-week follow-up sessions/five courses
	Course #1 follow-up, then one week break
	Course #2 follow-up, then one week break
	Course #3 follow-up, then one week break
	Course #4 follow-up, then one week break
	(optional) Course #5 follow-up, then one week break
Repeat of annual cycle with pre-residency #2	The MBA program repeats the annual cycle three times

The contextualized curriculum focuses on issues in the developing world, and the majority of faculty blends scholarship with practitioner experience. Cohort learning models provide opportunity for collaborative learning and a supportive environment. A high degree of mutual support evolves as students start and finish the program with the same group of people.

3.3.5 Current students and alumni

As previously mentioned, the MBA program in economic development serves two distinct student groups. Those wishing to become engaged in NGO work in developing countries typically enroll in Eastern University's accelerated sixteen-month residential campus-based plus field semester program. The average age of this population is mid-twenties, and their origin is typically North America. Most have had less than three years experience in a developing country, primarily as volunteers.

The second, more recent population of experienced NGO practitioners partakes of Eastern University's thirty-six month overseas hybrid delivery MBA because it permits them to remain employed and engaged in their NGO work. The average age of this group is late thirties, and ninety percent are from developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Most have at least a decade of NGO experience and include all levels of organizational rank. Figure 3.2 demonstrates the enrollment history of the MBA in economic development program from its establishment until 2001. The contrast between strong enrollments in the early years and falling enrollments in its second half contributed to the administrative intervention of 2002.

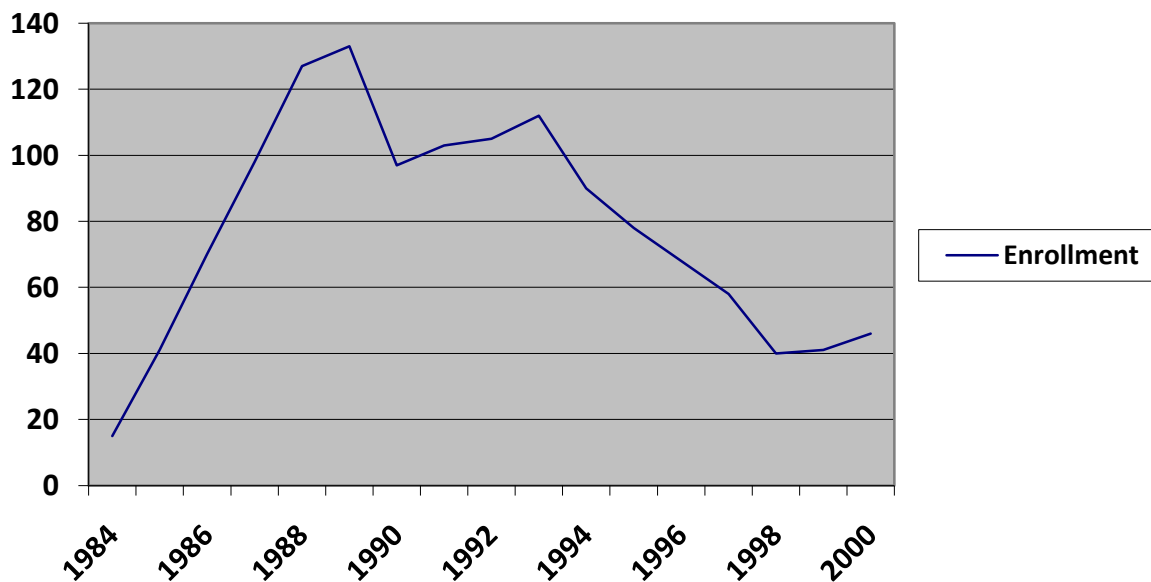


Figure 3.2: Enrollment history of MBA in economic development program

Source: Lowery, 2001; Eastern College, 1996

Although Eastern University's MBA in economic development alumni number fewer than one thousand, they have had a significant impact serving with NGOs in twenty-five American cities and thirty-two countries (Eastern University, 2004b). The alumni:

- are relief workers in Chile and missionaries in Thailand;
- create jobs in Bangladesh, China and Seattle;
- administer AIDS clinics in Los Angeles and Malawi;
- direct development organizations in Canada, Russia, Indonesia and Uganda;

- run community clinics in Washington DC and Philadelphia;
- are diplomats, educators, entrepreneurs, trainers, pastors, CEOs, youth workers, urban planners, marketers, analysts, community developers, program managers, presidents, doctors, lawyers, builders and bankers; and
- serve with the United Nations, the World Bank, the US Agency for International Development and many faith-related NGOs, including World Vision International, Habitat for Humanity, Samaritan's Purse, Opportunity International, Food for the Hungry, Mennonite Economic Development Associates, Hope International, International Justice Mission, World Concern, World Relief, and Compassion International (Eastern University, 2006).

Table 3.7 reveals the composition of the Eastern University MBA in Economic Development alumni. This information was gathered from an archival resource where three hundred thirty-nine alumni were contacted by students for a marketing research project.

Table 3.7: Characteristics of Eastern University MBA in economic development alumni

Source: Eastern University, 2006

GENDER	Male: 70%	Female: 30%	
NATIONALITY	N. America: 67%	Africa: 19%	Asia: 6%
RESIDENCE	N. America: 54%	Africa: 17%	Asia: 11%
AGE	38–45: 31%	30–37: 26%	46–53: 19%
JOB INSTITUTION	NGO/NPO: 70%	For-profit: 11%	Self-employed: 8%
CURRENT TITLE	Program Dir: 25%	CEO/Head: 16%	Program Mgr: 13%
YEARS IN FIELD	10+ Years: 56%	6–10 Years: 25%	3–5 Years: 11%

In summary, the majority of Eastern University's MBA in economic development alumni are Caucasian from the US between the ages of 38 and 45 years of age who reside in the US and who currently work in the NGO/NPO sector occupying a leadership position with over ten years of work experience in the field. A large minority of alumni are of African

heritage residing in Africa. They are between the ages of 30 and 37 years of age, occupy a project management position and have six to ten years of experience in the field.

3.3.6 A Christian faith-based curricular approach

A rationale for the academic relevance for examining the program of Eastern University includes its position in the American faith-based higher education community as a leading provider of faith-based economic development programming. A member of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities' (CCCCU), 111 institutions of higher learning in the United States and Canada, Eastern University was the CCCCU forerunner in international development, which is now an increasingly popular major with the CCCCU institutions' 325,000 students (CCCCU, 2010).

Eastern University students and alumni had a dozen, mostly secular, development MBAs to choose from (Mirabella, 2007), but it's particular Christian faith-integrated approach sets it apart and merits more attention. Faith integration in the Eastern University program does more than layer a theological veneer on a secular approach to international development. The integrative aspect invades the program's activities and inspires its curricular approaches, as evinced in the following statement of core values (Eastern University, 2010a):

Professional:

The School of Leadership and Development is committed to best practices of professional and ethical conduct drawn from our evangelical commitment to Christ. We seek to exemplify this ethos in the delivery, servicing and execution of all our programs in the marketplace and hold ourselves equally accountable to conduct our relationships with our stakeholders with the highest degree of professionalism and integrity

Community:

The spirit of the community we create, uphold and cherish is central to the way in which we conduct our relationships internally and externally. We seek to be both deliberate and genuine as we strive to honor God by treating each other with respect, love and

compassion while serving one another, our partners and our stakeholders with humility, competence and excellence.

Faithful:

Through the deliberate integration of faith, reason and justice in our programs and interactions, the School of Leadership and Development holds these three principles central to our work in training and educating individuals and leaders who demonstrate faithfulness to the transformative work of the living Jesus in our world and in our lives.

These faith-integrated core values, therefore, are foundational to how courses are constructed. The following course description from the course catalog demonstrates the distinguishing marks of this approach in the context of its secular counterparts:

ADVOCACY AND HUMAN RIGHTS

This course is designed to prepare Christian leaders for social justice advocacy in the context of the global struggle for human rights. Drawing upon Martha Nussbaum and Amartya Sen's "Capabilities approach" to human rights, the course presents a Freirean model for social justice advocacy that recognizes the local, national and international context of advocacy work. The course emphasizes the importance of developing a biblical basis for social justice advocacy and the development of professionals to cultivate strong advocacy skills (Eastern University, 2010b).

Students and alumni have testified of their appreciation of the Christian faith-integrated approach throughout the program's lifespan and identified it as a reason for this college choice (Eastern University, 2010c, 2004b, 1996). Additionally, the faith-integrated curricular approach is consistent with the stated expectations of Christian faith-based NGO executives and HR directors as well as its institutional partners. Their interest in addressing faith matters in the curriculum had both to do with their own mission-related needs for faith-integrated personnel as well as an appreciation of the importance of religious understanding for work in many developing world contexts (DiRaddo, 2001, Smith, 2001).

3.3.7 The 2002 intervention plan

After several struggling years (refer back to 1.2 for more detail), the Eastern University administration intervened in 2000 with a two-year study of the MBA, the purpose of which was to recommend solutions to breakdowns within the economic development program. Staff turnover, leadership issues and constant curricular change among other things contributed to falling enrollments and failing persistence of the program's students. Considering the input gained from internal stakeholders, program alumni and NGO development leaders, the University in 2002 formulated the path of action previously identified in 1.2.1 through 1.2.7.

In 2007, Eastern University found itself five years into the economic development program's reinvention in accordance with the plan set forth by its administration in 2002. A qualitative research approach using document analysis verified by interviews and focus groups determined whether all the essential elements of the project were in place and operating in accordance with the plans put forth in 2002.

3.4 SUMMARY

Global MBAs for business leaders are the premier management education programs, but they have their limitations when seeking to apply them to the needs of development NGO leaders. The first challenge is how MBA programs constructed on the for-profit model serve a constituency whose foundational purposes are defined radically differently, where success is defined in terms of social outcomes as opposed to shareholder value, and timelines extend much farther than quarterly reports. That having been said, many of the management skills covered in MBA programs comply with those needed by development NGO leaders.

Accrediting organizations have encouraged institutions to fashion programs reflecting their missions and values. Therefore, an MBA for NGO leaders may conceivably satisfy both the skill sets and other considerations required for success in the developing world's

social sector. As distinguished from its for-profit forerunner, the NGO MBA must delve deeply into cross-cultural issues as well as matters of religious worldview. Similarly, it will take seriously pedagogical approaches that enhance accessibility and affordability with an audience widely dispersed in many challenging global contexts.

The Eastern University MBA in economic development, one of the older economic development graduate programs in existence, reflects such an approach to preparing NGO leaders. An examination of the curriculum indicates how this program satisfies the needs of NGO leaders as established in the first part of the literature review (Chapter Two). A recounting of the Eastern University MBA in economic development history, curriculum, delivery system, student and alumni body and the intervention plan of 2002 provides the context for succeeding research.

The first of this two-part literature review developed an understanding of the needs and challenges of NGO leaders and the availability of economic development education established at the end of the previous chapter. This section followed by making the case for the MBA degree as a fitting vehicle for preparing NGO leaders to lead their development organizations. These conclusions from the literature provided the conceptual foundation for the following research of an international graduate economic development program that proposes to educate development NGO leaders for the developing world. A presentation of the research methodology performed follows in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to contribute to existing NGO management knowledge by developing a greater understanding of the execution and effectiveness of a NGO leadership-focused, international MBA program in economic development. The Eastern University MBA program in economic development flourished for its first decade before faltering in its second one. An institutional intervention planning process resulted in a radical reinvention of the program in 2002.

In 2007, Eastern University found itself five years into reinvention of the MBA program in economic development. A qualitative research approach using document analysis and data collection through interviews and focus groups was conducted to determine whether all the essential elements of the project were in place and operating in accordance with the plans put forth in 2002.

What follows is a detailed description of the research process employed. This will enhance the replicability of the methodology and the validity of the findings presented in the following chapter. The knowledge gained from this study will have value to educators and institutions that prepare people to advance the interests of the NGO sector.

4.2 INTERPRETIVE PARADIGM

Contrasting views exist relating to the paradigms that inform the assumptions and beliefs determining the relevant topics, appropriate methods and proper interpretation of results in a research approach (Petkov, Petkova, Nepal and Andrew, 2006). Three of the more popular paradigms – the positivist, interpretive and critical science views – are contrasted in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1: Contrasting views of alternative paradigms**Source: Education Association of South Africa, 2001:1**

Underlying assumptions and beliefs about:	Positivism	Interpretivism	Critical science
Purpose(s) of research	Discover laws and generalizations which explain reality and allow to predict and control	Understand and interpret daily occurrences and social structures as well as the meanings people give to the phenomena	Emancipate people through critique of ideologies that promote inequity and through change in personal understanding and action that lead to transformation of self-consciousness and social conditions
Nature of reality (ontology)	Single, givens, fragmentable, tangible, measurable, convergent	Multiple, constructed through human interaction, holistic, divergent	Multiple, constructed, holistic, divergent, social and economic; embedded in issues of equity and hegemony
Nature of knowledge (epistemology)	Events are explained based upon knowable facts, real causes or simultaneous effects; law-like irregularities exist	Events are understood through the mental process of interpretation which is influenced by and interacts with social context	Events are understood within social and economic context with emphasis on ideological critique and praxis
Relationship between knower and the known	Independent, dualism	Interrelated, dialogic	Interrelated, influenced by society and commitment to emancipation
Role of value(s) in research	Value free	Value-bounded	Value-bounded; ideological critique and concern for inequities

The positivist view is modeled on and best suited for scientific investigation. It assumes that reality is unitary and can be understood through empirical inquiry by observing the

unambiguous rules that govern reality. It also believes that generalizable laws are discovered through objective means employing prediction and control in value-neutral settings. In contrast, the critical science view is oriented toward emancipation and empowerment. It sees reality and knowledge in terms of relationships, particularly the ways in which those are informed by power or the lack thereof. Language is perceived as the way in which social reality is constructed, and a value-bound critique exposes social inequities.

Alternatively, the interpretive view was selected for this study. Whereas the positivist view values objectivity and the critical view values change, the interpretive approach to research is employed when the investigator seeks to understand the subjective reasons and meanings that exist behind social developments (Terre Blanche, 1998). Accordingly, an understanding of the reasons and meanings behind the success or failure of educational programs creates value for others in similar positions of programmatic leadership.

When researching smaller samples of human beings or executing in-depth investigations where meaning is sought, it is most appropriate to embrace an interpretive research paradigm (Cryer, 2000). An interpretivist approach relies on limited kinds of data gathering instruments, particularly those that allow the researcher to gather descriptions and insights from multiple points of view (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994), which are employed in a rigorous, systematic fashion (Denscombe, 2002). The interpretive paradigm assumes first-hand accounts are available, and these are typically gathered in the field using interviews, focus groups, participant observation or through archival, document and image analysis (Terre Blanche, 1998). In the case of this study, document analysis, focus groups and interviews were selected as the means to gather detailed descriptions, experiences and the insights of those who had participated in the program under investigation.

It is essential to understand the concept of empathy in order to comprehend what lies at the heart of the interpretivist approach. Only when the researcher fully appreciates the

context of research subjects, can he/she truly understand human experience. Full appreciation is only possible through empathy. Terre Blanche (1998:123) states that empathy evinces itself in these ways:

- by assuming that people's experiences are real and should be taken seriously;
- by interacting with the subjects and listening to what they say; and
- by paying particular attention to ordinary language and expression.

The posture of interaction with respondents in this research was not oppositional, but rather participative. That is, the researcher facilitated trust and created a safe space in order to engage the subjects and to empower them to speak truthfully and in confidence. This was accomplished by locating neutral locations for the conversations, committing to active listening and ensuring confidentiality through the use of signed consent (see Appendix 1) and permission to audiotape forms (see Appendix 12).

Through exercising empathy in their research endeavors, investigators understand a phenomenon from within its own social context, which more readily helps them to understand the social world. This special approach to research assumes an emergent research design (Denscombe, 2003), as situational findings will continually require adjustments that augment the data gathering processes.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Research comprises a systematic investigation that uncovers understanding that goes well beyond that which is apparent in order to acquire specialized information and new knowledge about a particular phenomenon (Johnson, 1994). Denscombe (2002) extends this sentiment with the identification of five principle aims of social research, namely perceiving properties, understanding relationships, producing theories, predicting outcomes and confirming other researchers' findings. In this study, a systematic investigation was necessary to better understand the properties and relationships of an academic program through its life cycle in the complex environment of higher education.

Some methodological approaches are better suited to a particular research problem than others. Each academic discipline typically embraces approaches with shared philosophical underpinnings while sometimes eschewing others (White, 2000). While it has a place in certain types of social research, quantitative research, being objective in nature, scientific in its orientation, and reliant on statistical calculations, is favored by the physical sciences. Qualitative research differs significantly from the quantitative approach in that it is freer to depart from a fixed plan as its investigation unfolds (De Vos, 1998). For this study, the qualitative approach was most attractive since the subject area to be evaluated had not been adequately explored in prior scholarly research.

The examination of an academic program over a period of time that included many different iterations and a high degree of fluidity of staffing required a research approach that sought a deep understanding of human behaviors and institutional knowledge. Long favored by social researchers, qualitative research is a broad term that covers a variety of methods that are concerned with meanings and the way people understand things, and with patterns of human behavior (Denscombe, 2003:267).

Either quantitative or qualitative approaches may be utilized in social science research. Choosing between them involves the researcher's preferences (for the kinds of data desired), the nature of the research questions and the project's practical considerations (Denscombe, 2003:131), which in this study is the examination of an existing academic program. According to Maxwell (2005:147), "To improve practice, educational research needs to emphasize the context within which the activities studied occur and the meanings of activities studied for the participants. Qualitative methods meet those needs."

Qualitative research is best suited for this study as it aims to answer the question of whether a program has been properly implemented, whether the target group has been adequately covered and whether interventions were implemented as designed (Mouton, 2001). Stated differently, a qualitative research approach suits the investigator who feels

compelled to evaluate an existing program (De Vos, 1998), which is precisely the activity this study accommodated.

4.3.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research perceives the world as socially constructed, and it includes a variety of social research tools common to the disciplines of sociology, social anthropology and social psychology (Denscombe, 2003). Creswell (1994) and White (2000) identified a number of reasons for undertaking a qualitative study, including the researcher's quest to:

- question “how” or “what”;
- explore a topic in great detail;
- collect data in the form of descriptions;
- study individuals in their natural setting;
- study the way groups and organizations behave and interact;
- tell the story from the point of view of the participants; and
- utilize a literary writing style and bring self into the study.

This listing mirrors the motivation for using qualitative research in this study. Detailed descriptions were sought and obtained through the analysis of institutional archives. Focus groups and interviews with faculty, staff and administrators provided environments where the probing questions explored their understandings of the program and its development. The participants' points of view were expressed in these semi-controlled circumstances, but also in their natural settings, particularly as students and alumni were engaged about their experiences and satisfaction with the program.

Qualitative research “has a particular part to play in exploring issues of process, in explaining how outcomes are achieved – or not, as the case may be” (Silverman, 2004:337). According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994:584), the common denominator of all good qualitative research is “the commitment to study human experience from the ground up”. Lacking prior curricular-related research experience, it was essential for this

researcher to adopt this posture in order to fully grasp the complex context of academic decision-making.

Because of its orientation to the particular, the generalization of findings is deemphasized as a critical success factor in qualitative research. In any social situation where one looks deeply into the interactions of unique individuals in distinctive settings, there will be findings that are simply not replicable elsewhere with any predictability. That was certainly the case in this study.

There are always factors that are unique to the locale or series of events that make it useless to try to generalize there from ... For 'when we give proper weight to local conditions, any generalization is a working hypothesis, not a conclusion' (Cronbach in Lincoln and Guba, 1985:124).

While the situation in this study is unique in some aspects, and one intention is to improve the program, the desire to create knowledge from the study for the benefit of other educators and NGOs can be fulfilled by this approach. While generalizability is not the primary aim of qualitative research, "working hypotheses" may be generated and found to be transferable among increasingly congruent programs, a concept Lincoln and Guba (1985:124) refer to as "fittingness". For this study, congruent programs would include, but not necessarily be limited to, other MBAs oriented toward serving NGOs and their leaders.

A major distinguishing factor of qualitative research is the obvious presence of the researcher in the midst of the study. The selection of the topic to be researched, for example, reveals this researcher's interest in the subject of improving programs that enable NGOs to increase their impact and effectiveness. Since qualitative research forms from a process of interpretation of data that are produced as humans interact with other humans, the researcher plays a significant role. The search for meanings, understandings, and patterns of behavior from within the context of the subject under study can be an

inherently subjective process. Therefore, the identity, values and beliefs of the researcher may never be completely isolated from the process (Denscombe, 2003).

The researcher's proximity as an employee of the institution under examination was a potential challenge to the study. As a senior administrator, his experience provided him with the ability to apprehend how interpersonal complexities and institutional pathologies create context for interpreting meaning that must not be underappreciated. Conversely, his position at the University might have been an obstacle to frank testimony with some participants, had he not guaranteed confidence through the employment of protective measures (see Appendices 1, 12). To further guard against the potential of procedural irregularities related to the qualitative approach, he submitted his research plans and procedures for review and critique to a faculty member at another university who possessed expertise in qualitative methodology principles and practices. Additionally, strategies were employed to enhance the credibility of the analysis, such as the following:

- considering alternative interpretations to the findings;
- returning to research subjects as necessary to explore disconnects;
- triangulating multiple perspectives; and
- engaging in dialogue with scholars and practitioners through both presentation and publication.

Qualitative research has both its supporters and its detractors. On the *positive* side, Denscombe (2003:280) includes these attributes:

- data and analysis are grounded;
- there is richness and detail to the data;
- there is tolerance of ambiguity and contradictions; and
- there is the prospect of alternative explanations.

On the *negative* side, he adds these potential limitations of qualitative research:

- the data may be less representative;
- interpretation is bound up with the self of the researcher;
- there is a possibility of decontextualizing the meaning; and

- there is danger of oversimplifying the explanation.

Given the complexity of human organization, the perceived limitations of qualitative research should come as no surprise, nor should they obstruct the pursuit of understanding. The employment of tactics ensuring good research practice will help strengthen the reliability of research and the respect of the research community. Terre Blanche (1998) argues that commitments to peer examination, reasoned consensus, training and independent audits will add rigor to any qualitative research project. The engagement of others will help minimize the potential limitation of research being bound by the self of the researcher. Accordingly, throughout this study, peer evaluation was solicited from several experienced faculty who educate leaders from the NGO sector. A research diary was kept in order to help facilitate any researchers' desires for additional examination or replication. Research findings were presented at a conference of international development academics and practitioners. The publication of the conclusions of this study in a peer-reviewed journal engaged the scholarly community for additional examination and input. Finally, a collaborative NGO/higher education group elected to utilize the study's evaluative framework in the planning process for a graduate development program that is being implemented in Rwanda.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

At its simplest, a research design is a logical strategy for gathering required evidence (De Vos, 1998). The research design forms a bridge between the researcher's questions and the plan to gather the evidence required through investigation. The intentionality of design is the distinguishing mark that separates research activity from mere observation (Terre Blanche, 1998). The research design centers on the logic of the research, focusing more on the evidence required to address adequately the research problem than on the particular details required to secure such evidence (Mouton, 2001). This was critically important in the present study. As higher education is a culture valuing the written word and documentation, the amount of available evidence far exceeded the researcher's needs.

This study of an educational program fell within the realm of social science research, which Mouton and Marais (1990:7) have defined as “a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it”. A qualitative research approach was employed to determine whether, as of 2007, the Eastern University MBA program in economic development was being conducted in accordance with the University’s reinvention plan of 2002. This approach described, measured and analyzed the implementation of the process through which the program achieved its intended outcomes (Kiernan, 2001). Figure 4.1 illustrates the model of planned research.

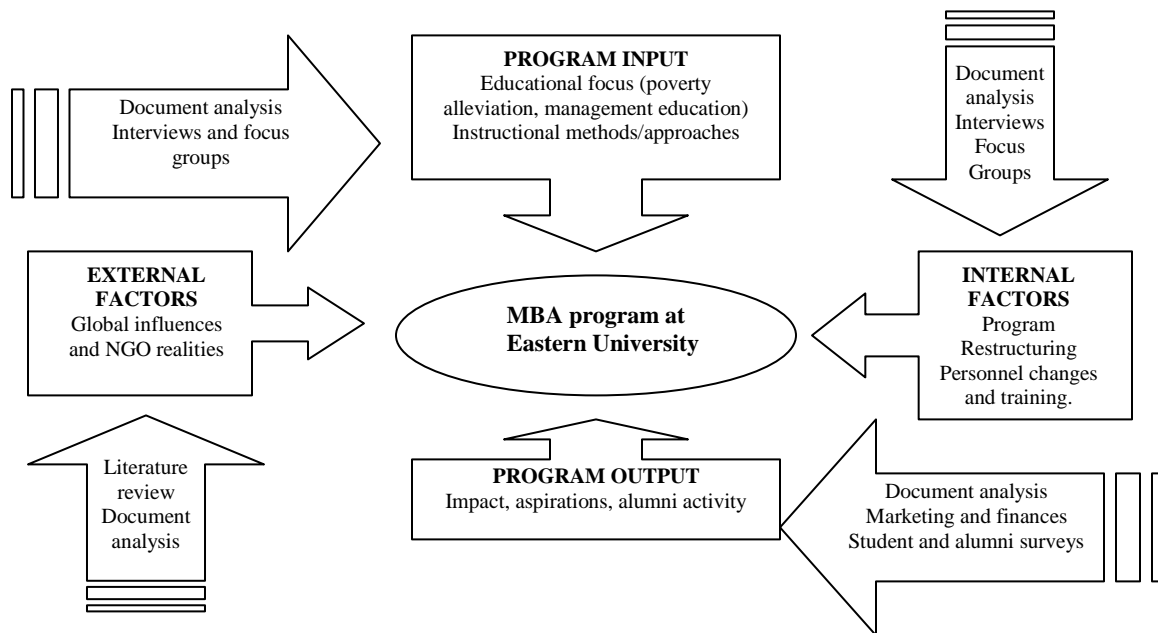


Figure 4.1: A model of planned research

At the center of the research design lies the subject of this research approach, the MBA program in economic development at Eastern University. NGO realities and global influences are the key external factors that impact the curricular design of the program. The changing conditions of developing nations and the required response of the NGO

community affect the knowledge NGO leaders need to acquire. Greater understanding of the influences of these forces was achieved through both external literature review and internal document analysis.

Document analysis followed a programmed set of established criteria, which included:

- document title
- date of document
- source of composition
- why it was written
- methods used to attain the document
- evidence of internal bias
- inclusivity or exclusivity in the document
- institutional constraints or organizational routines under which it was prepared,
- index of activity or analysis of a phenomenon
- time lapse between observation and documentation
- confidential or public
- role of etiquette
- consistent or contrasting evidence
- categories and concepts
- selectivities and silences
- issues and debates
- inferences
- generalizations
- observations and
- disconnects with other sources (see Appendix 2).

Several documents shed light on global influences and NGO realities. A phone survey of fourteen NGOs concerning their training needs, delivery methods, partnership practices, financial issues, and awareness of the EU programs was conducted by an MBA graduate intern together with a professor of economics in 2000. A two-day focus group session

with NGO industry leaders and development practitioners was conducted by an assistant dean in 2001.

Factors internal to the university also impacted the program, as demonstrated in other institutional documents. Personnel changes and related training activities, along with continuous university restructuring for increased effectiveness and outreach influenced program delivery. Focus groups with six faculty and staff combined with interviews with seven staff and administrators and internal document analysis provided greater insight into the weight of these internal factors. Other documents that produced value for this investigation included:

- a master's thesis on the history and development of Eastern University's urban and economic development programs;
- historical data required on economic development study compiled by a former program director;
- a curricular review project conducted by a graduate intern; and
- an organization change assessment conducted by a former assistant dean.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the seven staff and administrators at the University who had present or prior responsibility within the economic development program using a summary of the 2002 intervention plan (see 1.2.1 through 1.2.7) and the researcher's listing of key topics and issues (see Appendix 13) to guide conversation. Interviews were located in neutral, non-threatening locations, often selected by the respondent. The interviews were recorded and notes were taken to describe nonverbal behavior during the sessions. Interviews with students and alumni were conducted on-line because of the international locations and asynchronous availability of the respondents. These interviews included brief fixed sets of open-ended questions that differed in accordance with the constituent groups (US-based students, overseas residency students and recent alumni). Interviews could be completed in approximately ten minutes, depending on the speed of the internet connection.

Focus group participants were also connected to the program of study, albeit more tangentially. For example, the three groups included two faculty members, four staff members in supporting roles and five economic development students from the US-based program (see Appendix 11). The groups were conducted like semi-structured interviews, with the same research questions used to guide the conversation. Groups were located in neutral, non-threatening locations, often selected by the respondent. Focus groups were recorded and notes were taken to describe both nonverbal and interactive behavior during the sessions.

To assess how significantly the elements of program input, namely the educational focus and instruction methods, influenced the MBA program in economic development, archival input previously secured about the program from nearly one hundred alumni through surveys and an advisory task force meeting with six NGO leaders was examined through document analysis. These findings were compared with the inside perspective offered by seven staff and administrators in interview situations and six faculty/staff and five students through focus groups.

The output of the program was essential in assessing the nature of its development. The primary output of a graduate academic program came in the form of student aspirations, effective alumni service, knowledge production and faculty professional activity. Input from twenty-six current students and twenty-one recent alumni was obtained through on-line interviews. Two faculty recounted personal levels of recent scholarship and staff joined in reporting on the program's external contributions in focus group settings.

Finally, it is important to note that each element of the research design was investigated with data from multiple sources. This triangulation of sources contributed to substantiating findings through multiple perspectives. More of these and other efforts to ensure validity and reliability can be found in Sections 4.8 and 4.8.1.

4.4.1 Research questions

This study evaluated the implementation and effectiveness of an intervention with the Eastern University MBA program in economic development. As such, the program's content, delivery, target population and outcomes formed the focus of the research questions. The *first question* sought to establish whether there was consistency between prior research findings establishing the revised program's aims and the consequential intervention plan. The *second question* sought understanding regarding the implementation of the plan. As such, the second question focused on changes to program content, service delivery and whether the reinvented program reached its target population. The *third and final question* pursued evidence on whether intended outcomes were realized. Evidence was sought through measuring student satisfaction and examining alumni service. These three questions formed the basis for assessing the success of the Eastern University intervention plan of 2002:

1. Were the University's findings consistent with components of the 2002 intervention plan?
2. Have the activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?
3. Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the changed economic development program?

4.5 METHODOLOGY

Denscombe (2002) identified the qualifying starting point for social research as follows:

- have clearly identified objectives;
- relate objectives to existing knowledge and needs; and
- investigate objectives within the limits of resources and opportunity.

The objective of this study, found behind the three research questions outlined above, was to determine the effectiveness of the Eastern University MBA program in economic development since the intervention plan of 2002 was executed. Questions are repeated in Table 4.2, followed by the study's research objectives.

Table 4.2: Research objectives

	Research questions	Research objectives
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	Establish whether there was consistency between findings and plan.
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Establish whether there was fidelity between activities and plan. Understand reasons for alternative activities.
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the changed economic development program?	Establish whether the plan succeeded through student satisfaction, alumni approval and career outcomes.

The Eastern University MBA in economic development intervention plan of 2002 resulted from a lengthy, strategic process of study, reflection and conversation that was subject to documentation. Many of the primary actors are still at the University, and most others were located. Multiple methods of data collection were utilized in the study. The investigator employed individual interviews with the key actors in the intervention plan, including seven program staff and Eastern University administrators. Input from twenty-six current students and twenty-one recent alumni was obtained through on-line interviews. Focus groups included two economic development faculty, four staff in supporting roles and five economic development students from the US-based program. Analysis of sixty-eight existing archival documentary sources that chronicled the actors and processes involved in constructing the intervention plan (see Appendix 3), executing the intervention plan (see Appendix 4) and those that followed execution of the plan (see Appendix 5), were evaluated to ascertain both the consistency of the plan with preliminary findings as well as its effectiveness in achieving its aims.

Possible limitations to the collection of data included the following:

- lost, irretrievable or incomprehensible documents;
- the inability to identify or locate key subjects for participation in interviews;
- any subject's failure to recall events properly; and
- the unwillingness of subjects to discuss certain subjects.

4.5.1 Data collection

To draw valid conclusions from research, data need to be both relevant and accurate (Cryer, 2000). Only then can the researcher be confident that the meaning of the data is consistent with what was recorded (Terre Blanche, 1998). Even before data collection begins, however, De Vos (1998) suggests that a systematic plan will help facilitate retrieval for analytical purposes. Therefore a research action plan was devised (see Appendix 6). Decisions were reached concerning standardized materials for data (paper and computer files), formats that empowered the researcher's intentions, organizational strategies (tags, colors and software programs), replication (back-ups) and filing requirements (Denscombe, 2002). A digital recording device was secured that facilitated transcription and computer-based audio analysis through the creation of Windows Media Audio (WMA) files. Additionally, external computer storage devices ensured that back-up copies of interview and focus group recordings were stored in secure locations. Adhering to these seemingly superfluous details kept data intact, organized and secure. More importantly, it proved "invaluable for piecing together patterns, defining categories for data analysis, planning further data collection and writing the final product of the research" (Marshall and Rossman, 1999:108–109).

A plan of data collection began as current and former economic development directors with access to files and documents were successfully solicited for their paper and electronic archival resources. Other staff and administrators with specialized roles relating to the program were similarly engaged for retrieval of economic development program-related documentation. Following that, selection criteria were established for archival evidence so that the only documents selected for evaluation were those where

authorship was established, and where the documents possessed potential for presenting relevant evidence related to one of three developmental program phases under review in this study: pre-intervention, intervention, post-intervention.

The interpretive paradigm determined the nature of methods utilized to collect the required data. In this case, the researcher collected data in context and entered the research setting with care. As such, the researcher engaged participants at their convenience and in settings of their own choosing. Informal conversation surrounded a semi-structured format, and the environment was both empathetic and open (Terre Blanche, 1998). A listing of key audience-specific topics, issues and questions guided the conversational interviews (see Appendices 9, 10 and 13).

Observations of the phenomena under examination were considered closely for themes from the particular bits of gathered data. For instance, an emerging pattern in several archival documents that would be repeated in an interview or vice versa merited special attention. Because of the richness and detailed nature of the data, generalities emerged from even a limited number of subjects. These threads formulated themes that proved to be the genesis of future chapters on findings and conclusions.

In this study, the researcher employed the following research methods often found in qualitative research studies: document analysis, interviews, and focus groups. More detail follows in Table 4.3, which lists the data generation techniques planned in each instance.

Finally, a research trail was established in the form of a research diary (see Appendix 8). A research diary permits another researcher the ability to audit one's work in order to form a second opinion to either confirm or challenge the data and/or the conclusions of the investigator (Terre Blanche, 1998). This diary kept track of research activities and was maintained through the data collection and analysis processes. The investigator took

Table 4.3: Qualitative research methods

	Research questions	Qualitative research methods
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	Archival document analysis
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Focus groups, interviews and document analysis
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the change process?	Focus groups, interviews and document analysis

care to jot down precise details of when and where data was collected, the criteria for selecting specific sources of data, and strategies and techniques used in data capture. Distinct research activities are included in the diary, in various levels of detail, with the following as an example:

Interview with Eastern University President:

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| a) Phone call to set time/location of interview | January 26, 2007 |
| b) Reminder/reconfirmation sent via e-mail | February 22, 2007 |
| c) Interview at subject's home | March 15, 2007 |
| d) Transcription | March 15, 2007 |

4.5.1.1 Document analysis

Organizational documents and records can provide a valuable source of information for social science research. Minutes of meetings, budgetary documents, planning reports, progress reviews and the like typically serve to enhance accountability in an organization because they provide a systematic picture of the past, and are typically available to the public (Denscombe, 2003). The materials accessed in this study included the following organizational documents:

- minutes of meetings;
- reports;
- agreements;
- student theses and research projects;
- catalogs;
- budgets;
- publications;
- surveys; and
- strategic plans.

Such official documents are continuously compiled and maintained by larger organizations, they can be obtained at relatively low cost and they grant access to otherwise inaccessible information.

Letters, memoranda and other primary documents are documentary sources of a potentially more private nature, but they are indeed valid for research even if interpretive researchers find them less valuable than first-hand research (Terre Blanche, 1998). Correspondence revealing exchanges between administration, faculty and students were valuable sources of information and were most often in e-mail or memorandum formats. Another form of data gathered in this way was informal meeting notes, both hand-jotted and computer-recorded, that were secured from departmental files. Because these sources are more prone to incompleteness, bias and lack of standard format (DeVos, 1998), it is the investigator's responsibility to attempt to prove their worth by seeking to understand the author's intentions in composing the documents. Bailey (1994) cautions researchers to examine such documents closely for authenticity and reliability, being ever aware of the possibility of the author having ulterior motives, seeking prestige or suffering memory lapses. The rubric created to facilitate documentary analysis is included in Appendix 2.

Babbie and Mouton (2001) suggest several helpful tests to help verify non-official documents, particularly those penned by individuals, including:

- asking the author to re-read the document and to present a critique;
- comparing the relevant document with data collected in other ways; and
- interviewing other informants who were personally involved to either corroborate or refute the contents of the document.

This test proved helpful in one instance where a subject affixed different dates to the same occurrence in separate memoranda. When presented with the dichotomy, the subject identified the error on one memorandum and testified to the correct date in the other one.

A problem-oriented approach to document analysis was employed in this study, meaning that only those documents that responded to the research questions were selected for analysis (Bell, 2005). Selection criteria was established for archival evidence so that the only documents selected for evaluation were those where authorship was established and where the documents possessed potential for presenting relevant evidence related to one of three developmental program phases under review in this study: pre-intervention, intervention, post-intervention. A comprehensive list of the documentary sources secured for the purposes of this study is included under these categories in the Appendix (3, 4, and 5). Documents were stored in a secure location to protect confidentiality. All electronic data was backed-up with a duplicate copy secured in a fire and theft-proof location.

The sixty-eight archival documents gathered for analysis comprised curricular documents, reports of focus groups conducted by faculty members with economic development students, overseas partnership agreements, statistical reports on enrollments, minutes of faculty meetings, historical documents, a master's thesis, charts of graduation rates, market research reports, memoranda, correspondence, proposals and strategic planning documents. They were analyzed pertaining to the research questions, as illustrated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Document analysis

	Research questions	Document analysis
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	Documents used for and resulting from the 2000–2002 planning activities, including but not limited to catalogs, archival program materials, planning retreat meeting notes, related correspondence and memoranda
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Program budgets and admissions records from 2002 to 2007
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the change process?	Alumni records from both pre-2002 alumni and recent alumni (2004 to 2007)

It is important to analyze documentary sources in a logical fashion, which makes it possible for the researcher's work to be repeated by other researchers. Terre Blanche (1998:221) suggests several evaluation techniques that will assist in that process:

- choose an appropriate sampling of the texts, taking care to explicitly state how selections were made;
- break the texts down into smaller units for examination purposes;
- develop relevant categories for analysis, using words, phrases, issues or ideas; and
- code the units in keeping with the categories, either in text or via a computer program.

As mentioned previously, selection criteria for the documents to be considered from the many available were established in advance. Texts were subdivided into three categories based upon the phase of the programmatic life cycle under review. Those establishing the condition of the program prior to the intervention were gathered in the “pre-intervention phase”. Those addressing the formation of a strategic intervention for the

program were gathered in the “intervention phase”. Those addressing the implementation of the intervention, or the effects thereof, were gathered in the “post-intervention phase”.

Within these units employed for organizational purposes, categories were developed to further enable analysis. Identified categories comprised:

- cohesion with program aims;
- program content;
- service delivery;
- target populations; and
- outcomes.

Each category was color coded to aid with organization and analysis in accordance with the research questions.

The documents collected for this study took many forms and served a variety of purposes, consisting of memoranda, e-mail correspondence, meeting notes, master’s theses, alumni publications, minutes of meetings, marketing plans, institutional budgets, course catalogs, notes to file, student research papers, focus group findings, syllabi and proposals. In all cases, requested documents were readily volunteered with no apparent reluctance.

A few documents were merely indexes of activity (such as institutional reports, spreadsheets or budgets), however, most documents included some level of analysis and, as such, revealed the authors’ biases. For example, the Dean’s letter, while demanding a recommendation concerning the future of the program in question (including cessation), follows by clearly expressing his desire that the program continue. Additionally, student-generated reports and papers demonstrated the all too clear-cut nature of young idealists’ worldviews, which limited their analysis and fostered leaps to unfounded conclusions. It was interesting to examine how authors’ own categories and concepts helped shape the information that was captured or communicated. For example, even though the final implementation plan was limited to precisely responding to the Dean’s mandate, which included cessation of the program, the framework chosen by the program director for

organization and analysis limited the possible outcomes of the process to redesign and delivery. Similarly, the results of a focus group on distance education were shaped by the fact that the sample included only international students who were presently in a US-based residential program. Additionally, a focus group of NGO leaders included only microfinance representatives, therefore had limited value addressing broader NGO issues.

The challenge of fixing the timing of events was significant in this study, as a number of collected documents were not dated. Internal clues helped affix the limits of possibility in most cases, encompassing:

- dates included in the narrative of an undated document;
- time-sensitive events included in an undated document;
- a dated document providing a parallel version of events with an undated document;
- the testimonies and dates given by document authors in subsequent interviews and correspondence.

Subsequently, ranges of dates were narrowed through triangulating with other data sources.

Silence or selectivity concerning differing categories of thought can be telling. For example, the data secured in preparation for the intervention plan of 2002 was extensive. Student interns who were assigned papers or research projects in support of discovery were strangely silent on issues of budget and personnel change. This was largely due to the limits on accessing data typically set on students. Therefore, certain of their conclusions had to be discounted. Similarly, the previously mentioned organizational change project proposal and report failed to elaborate beyond the organizational and analytic matrix to which it was subjected as well as the specifics of the mandate given by the Dean. Missing from this organizational change proposal were findings relating to non-curricular issues, such as program marketing, budgeting and alumni engagement. The result was that much input secured from various sources, but not fitting within the matrix or answering the Dean's direct questions was absent from the final report.

Overall, the sixty-eight documents that were subjected to analysis revealed a view of the realities facing the economic development program prior to intervention along with the plan of intervention. However, with the exception of budget and enrollment information, these documents provided only scant evidence of the actions following the plan. Interviews and focus groups proved essential to providing a clearer view of those activities, as is shown in the following sections.

4.5.1.2 Interviews

Interviews are particularly appropriate when samples are small and the researcher is interested in capturing data based on emotions, experiences, feelings or privileged information (Denscombe, 2003). Qualitative research approaches typically draw on interviews with those who operate the program (staff) and those who benefit from services (clients) in order to get a comprehensive view of the situation at hand. In this case, seven Eastern University staff and administrators engaged in one-hour interview sessions. Additional input from twenty-six current students and twenty-one recent alumni was obtained through on-line interviews.

Interviews followed a period of deliberate planning, which included every aspect, from the selection of quiet, secure locations to scheduling subjects with at least two weeks' advance notice. Terre Blanche (1998:130) offers a number of clues to ensure success in interviewing:

- start with a short summary of what is to be expected;
- know the material so you can engage the subject;
- keep process notes, recording nonverbal expressions;
- listen more, talk less and follow up with connecting thoughts;
- ask questions to clarify misunderstanding;
- explore – ask open-ended questions that do not presume a correct answer;
- keep participants focused and ask for concrete details;
- neither lead nor reinforce the participant;
- tolerate silence and encourage reflection; and

- ask the participant for additional thoughts after the interview.

There are several types of individual interview formats available for use, depending on the nature of research being conducted. Structured interviews are essentially questionnaires with fixed questions, except they are delivered orally. This type of interview was used with the current students and recent alumni of the program. Unstructured interviews are just the opposite, with the investigator working from broad concepts while lacking a script. Semi-structured interviews were utilized with Eastern University staff and administrators. These blend both styles, working off a list of key topics and issues, without being bound to a set of fixed questions. This flexibility enabled the researcher to pursue key data while not missing the opportunity to follow up on unexpected, yet potentially promising twists and turns that can occur spontaneously in face-to-face conversations.

Interview sessions with staff and administrators began with informal conversation that sought to create an unthreatening atmosphere for candid participation. Then subjects were given a bulleted copy of the Eastern University intervention plan of 2002 (see Sections 1.2.1 through 1.2.7). Conversation that followed was shaped by the elements of that plan, especially pertaining to the subject's involvement with or knowledge of any/each element. Direction was provided by a listing of key topics and issues (see Appendix 13). Freedom existed to extend or contract conversation based upon the depth of interest or engagement, or lack thereof. Interviews were concluded with an open invitation to ask questions of the researcher or to add to the conversation concerning matters the researcher did not include in the inquiry.

Crawley (2003: 522) convincingly argues that students are an extremely valuable resource for evaluating program outcomes:

Students should not be overlooked as invaluable resources of not only cultural wisdom but as individuals knowledgeable of various organizational structures and histories. It is also likely that students will be willing to

contribute appropriately to gathering culturally-specific materials. While students' primary role must not be compromised, there are other functions they can offer as collaborators in helping the development endeavor to succeed.

A challenging aspect of the study was qualitatively engaging both students and alumni who reside in many different countries across multiple time zones. Because of geographic remoteness, time differences and technological challenges, an asynchronous on-line solution was required. The research tool selected for the task was Survey Monkey. It offered a wide range of possibilities for designing data collection options, including open-ended queries that would engender rich description thereby satisfying the interests of the qualitative-oriented researcher. Encouragement of the reliability of the open-ended survey option for qualitative purposes was offered by Ward, Bertrand and Brown (1991: 269), when they observed the similarity of results gained through focus groups and surveys, "... in situations where data are needed for the purposes of program development". Additionally, Kraut (1984) exemplified the usefulness of computer surveys in conducting research on an international body of people connected by a computer network. Finally, the Survey Monkey program included analytical features that assisted the investigator in gathering and organizing the data secured through this resource. Most importantly, the researcher gained the ability to collect information asynchronously, an essential feature for student and alumni bodies that span fifty countries and multiple time zones.

Because of the global nature of the economic development program, on-line interviews were conducted with twenty-six current students on three continents (see Appendix 9). As those who were in the revised program at that time, it was important to gain from them information related to the program's intended outcomes. Because of the asynchronous nature of global communication, these interviews were in writing and thus more structured than the former ones. The written interviews invited open-ended, written responses. Interviews began with informal requests for personal information, such as country of origin, number of years already spent in development, their type of

employment and aspirations for after graduation. Following that, participants were asked to assess their texts, affirm the use of case studies in class, comment on their cohort experience and to anticipate the value of the field experience semester. The interview concluded with an invitation welcoming participants' critique and comments.

Similarly, graduates of the Eastern University program serve in many different countries; therefore on-line interviews were also conducted with twenty-one recent alumni. All those interviewed had graduated from the revised program after the intervention of 2002. The brief structured interview focused on intended outcomes of the program (see Appendix 10). Like the student format, this interview solicited open-ended, written responses. Alumni were asked if they were currently involved in development work and if so, where they were and what they were doing at that stage. They were asked to explain whether or not the field semester had aided in their transition to the field. They were also asked what other aspects of the curriculum best prepared them for their work. Additionally, they were asked to identify perceived shortcomings of the program. Finally, they were given an opportunity to offer additional information, which most of them did. Both student and alumni interviews were designed to require approximately ten minutes for completion, however the length of response and poor internet connections contributed to extended responses in some situations. Individual interviews were used to address research questions two and three in this study, as identified in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Interview participants

	Research questions	Interview participants
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	N/A
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Seven current and former Eastern University staff and administrators
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the change process?	Twenty-six current students and twenty-one alumni of the revised economic development program

A complete listing of interviewees by program role is included in Appendix 14. Data from individual interviews were collected on tape recordings that were then transcribed into written form. A sample interview transcription is included in Appendix 16. Interview transcripts were coded according to key concepts that developed during the work itself (Blaxter et al., 2001). Audiotapes and transcripts were stored in a secure location to protect confidentiality.

4.5.1.3 *Focus groups*

Focus groups are essentially interviews employed with groups of people, but the social dynamic adds both challenge and possibility to the task. For example, the investigator needs to establish a tolerant and encouraging environment for participants so they will freely share opinions, perceptions, experiences and concerns (De Vos, 1998). The researcher accomplished this by establishing ground rules for conversation and by facilitating an open and welcoming environment.

There are several good reasons for using focus groups, such as obtaining a vast amount of data in a small amount of time, but the researcher's greatest hope was that this small society would discover among themselves and voice information and insights that would not have been forthcoming from individual members. However, fate can work the opposite if an overbearing or manipulative individual frustrates the emergence of a productive group dynamic. Thankfully, while some subjects were more talkative than others, no such manipulative behavior was obviously exerted.

Focus groups are constructed around a set of selection criteria and usually comprise people who share a similar experience (Terre Blanche, 1998). Business uses them to assess market orientation by selecting groups by life stage, gender, race or location. Political pollsters rely heavily on focus groups composed of prospective voters to predict more accurately the anticipated outcomes of elections. In the case of this study, focus group participants shared a personal connection to the Eastern University MBA in economic development program, some as faculty or staff and others as students (see

Appendix 11). One group contained program staff. The second group contained mixed program faculty and staff. The third group included five economic development students from the US-based program.

Focus groups were employed to address research questions two and three as identified in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Focus group participants

	Research questions	Focus group participants
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	N/A
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Six economic development program faculty and staff
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the change process?	Five current economic development students

The two focus group sessions with faculty and staff began with an explanation of the research project. Also included was an overview of the ground rules for participation, and forms to assure confidentiality (see Appendix 1) and request permission to audiotape (see Appendix 12). Then subjects were given a bulleted summary of the Eastern University intervention plan of 2002 (see Sections 1.2.1 through 1.2.7). The group conversation that followed was shaped by the elements of that plan, especially pertaining to personal involvement with or knowledge of each element. Freedom existed to extend or contract conversation based upon the depth of interest or engagement, or lack thereof. The researcher observed nonverbal cues and recorded expressions of group dynamics. Focus groups were concluded with an open invitation to ask questions of the researcher or to add to the conversation concerning matters not included in the inquiry.

The focus group with economic development students was similarly formatted, but it had a very different purpose. Populated by two US and three international students, this

group's primary purpose was to draw on their understanding of communication patterns among their peers in order to recommend a research approach well suited to a global student and alumni body. They discussed the advantages and disadvantages of weblogs and on-line surveys, eventually coalescing around an open-ended, on-line interview approach that was employed in this study (see Appendix 15).

Data gathered from focus group interviews were collected on tape recordings that were then transcribed into written transcript form. A sample focus group transcription is included in Appendix 17. Focus group transcripts were coded according to key concepts that developed during the work itself (Blaxter et al., 2001). Audiotapes and transcripts were stored in a secure location to protect confidentiality.

4.5.2 Target group/sampling

Purposive sampling was utilized in this study as it ideally suits qualitative research studies (White, 2000). The researcher hand selected the subjects in this purposive sample. Because of prior knowledge of the research subjects, the researcher chose those likely to produce the most valuable data (Denscombe, 2003). While concerns exist that purposive sampling is subject to researcher bias (Bernard, 2001), the researcher minimized its dangers by expanding sample coverage and assuring that while "samples may have been selected purposively ... they are not being used purposively to interrogate the data collected" (Barbour, 2001:1116).

The scope of this research included the international graduate program in economic development at Eastern University over the five-year period, dating from 2002 through 2007. The target groups for this study were:

- current economic development students;
- current program faculty, staff and administrators; and
- recently graduated economic development students (or alumni).

Input from former faculty, staff, external advisors and less recent alumni was obtained through documentary materials to place current findings in their proper historical context.

Current students were considered to be those who presently enrolled in the newly revised program. Recently graduated economic development students (alumni) represented those who graduated from the program that was revised in 2002. The planned sample for each of the research questions follows in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Target group/sample

	Research questions	Target group/sample
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	Approximately one hundred (pre-2002) alumni and students, twelve former/current faculty and staff, and four external NGO leaders
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Ten current and former faculty & staff, plus three Eastern University administrators
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the change process?	Twenty-six current students, and twenty-one recent (post-2002) graduates

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

A key requirement of interpretive analysis is to remain closely related to the data, taking care to interpret it from a position of empathic understanding. The fruit of this approach is what anthropologists call “thick description” (Geertz, 1973:5). The empathic approach enabled this researcher to construct from the data a comprehensive narrative containing the characteristics, processes, transactions and contexts that constitute the following chapters of this study (Terre Blanche, 1998).

Because of its commitment to understanding the human condition and its appetite for rich detail, qualitative research tends to produce large amounts of data in a variety of formats

(Denscombe, 2003). Additionally, due to the emergent nature of the interpretive approach, the analysis process is a continuous one, including both when the original data is gathered and the period following data collection (De Vos, 1998). Thus, the challenge for this researcher was to organize the data for analysis by categorizing, unitizing or otherwise breaking it down into smaller entities. Ideas and themes proved to be fitting ways to organize the data for analysis. Color-coding was used to organize the data, which assisted in the processes of storage and retrieval. Proper coding permitted the researcher to arrange data in such a way that it facilitated the observation of initial core elements and, eventually, the key components that were vital to explaining complex social phenomenon (Denscombe, 2002).

Terre Blanche (1998:141–3) identified five helpful steps to the process of qualitative data analysis:

- familiarization and immersion;
- inducing themes;
- coding;
- elaboration; and
- interpretation and checking.

This represents an accurate portrayal of the process employed in this study. December 2006 through May 2007 comprised the data gathering period, where documents were collected, interviews were conducted and focus groups were convened. The balance of the month of May 2007 was spent becoming familiarized with the vast amount of collected data. A cursory reading of the documents and transcripts helped organize data for the deeper immersion process which consumed the month of June 2007. During the immersion process, data was digested multiple times, and themes began to emerge with increased analysis. As themes were identified, different colors were assigned to each. Upon rereading the material, data aligning with particular themes were highlighted with different colors (yellow, red, blue, etc.) accordingly. In July 2007, after the conclusion of the coding process and during the elaboration phase, the information being sought was separated from the storehouse of collected materials and reorganized as color-coded. Later in the month and through August 2007, the reorganized information was interpreted

and checked. On several occasions, the checking process led to additional conversations with those identified in the source materials where further clarification enhanced the process of analysis.

Proper analysis of data can prevent the most common errors from occurring during the data analysis and interpretation processes, which Mouton (2001:110) identifies as:

- drawing inferences from the data that are not supported by the data;
- post-coding errors, especially with semi-structured interviews; and
- biased interpretation of the data through selectivity.

From the outset of the data gathering and analysis process, the researcher examined the data gathered from the research questions for the evidence identified in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Data analysis

	Research questions	Data analysis
ONE	Were the University findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	Evidence of direct connection between the findings and the plan using archival analysis
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?	Evidence of direct connection between the plan and activities using transcribed tape-recorded sessions, budgetary and admissions records analyses
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the change process?	Evidence of current student satisfaction using transcribed tape-recorded sessions and alumni approval of program changes using on-line interviews as well as consistency between program objectives and alumni service

4.7 DATA PRESENTATION

In this study, the researcher employed the following research methods often found in qualitative research studies: document analysis, interviews, and focus groups. The aim of these research methods was to answer the research questions posed in Section 4.4.1. In presenting the data, the researcher explained the purpose of this qualitative research approach and described how the research was conducted, using as a guide the presentation paradigm proposed by Denscombe (2002:297):

- Which methods were used?
- When and where did the research take place?
- How was access to the data obtained?
- How many participants were involved in the research and how were they selected?
- Were there unexpected factors that arose and did they affect the outcome?
- Are there any reservations about authenticity, accuracy or honesty of the findings?

A written presentation of findings is included under the heading “Chapter Five: Presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings”. There the findings from document analysis, interviews and focus groups are presented in both tabular and narrative formats. Key components, or the most significant categories, that emerged from the data analysis process were identified, and tables were used to identify in which documents they had been referenced. Brief narrative segments that reinforce the findings were lifted verbatim from documents and inserted in the report to illustrate and substantiate the analysis.

4.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

There are nearly as many definitions of validity as there are authors, but what unites them is a common commitment to sound research principles, especially as regards data generation and analysis. White (2000) states that validity is largely determined by ensuring the research design fully addresses the research questions and the researcher’s objectives. Denscombe’s (2002) view that validity concerns the accuracy of the

questions asked, the data collected and the explanation offered is quite similar. Terre Blanche (1998:61) states that one can evaluate validity by asking, “How could I be wrong?” or “Are there any other factors that might explain the results that I anticipate?” Mouton (2001) claims that validity is most at risk when new instrumentation is developed for capturing data.

Reliability, on the other hand is concerned with consistency, particularly that the methods employed to obtain data might be repeated by another researcher and realize a similar outcome (White, 2000). As such, reliability usually involves an evaluation of the methods used to collect data (Denscombe, 2002). Terre Blanche (1998:64) uses the term *dependable* to describe this ability to repeat research results.

To summarize, Marshall and Rossman (1995:143–145) argue that all research is subject to the “canons that stand as criteria against which the trustworthiness of the project can be evaluated”, with the following questions.

- How credible are the particular findings of the study? By which criteria may we judge them?
- How transferable and applicable are these findings to another setting or group of people?
- How can we be reasonably sure that the findings would be replicated if the study were conducted with the same participants in the same context?
- How can we be sure that the findings are reflective of the subjects and the inquiry itself, rather than a creation of the researchers’ biases or prejudices?

The trustworthiness of this research approach was assured by adopting the aforementioned disciplines of qualitative research. Research validity and reliability was established upon the behaviors noted in Table 4.9:

Table 4.9: Foundational factors ensuring validity and reliability in the present study

1. The research design was submitted to peer researchers for review and critique
2. Research objectives were clearly identified
3. The data gathering instruments were limited to those best suited for obtaining data satisfying the research objectives and were employed in a systematic fashion
4. An analytical research journal was maintained throughout the data gathering process to permit replication of the study by subsequent researchers
5. A purposive sampling approach assured that only those germane to the study were investigated
6. The data sample was representative of each stage of the program's development under review
7. All research findings were kept both anonymous and secure
8. A commitment to ethical research principles protected the interests of research subjects and enhanced the reliability of their input
9. During analysis, commonly shared observations derived from data collected from multiple sources through a process known as triangulation, which established greater confidence in the validity and reliability of findings and conclusions
10. Findings from multi-method approach were triangulated for greater corroboration

4.8.1 Triangulation

Data generation techniques employed in this study comprised interviews, focus groups and analysis of established documents (alumni surveys, student focus groups, minutes from faculty meetings and data collected at a planning retreat with external advisors). Far from competing with each other, the three research methods created multiple perspectives that provided a valuable check to the researcher's own position while substantiating the findings (Terre Blanche, 1998).

By producing greater quantities of data from different sources focused on a specific target, the multi-method approach allowed findings to be corroborated (Denscombe, 2003). This process, also known as triangulation, refers to the practice of triangulating to a shared observation from the disparate points of multiple research methods. The greater the number of sources from which that shared point is located, the greater is the validity of the findings.

The advantages of triangulation are that triangulation allows researchers –

- to have greater confidence in their results;
- to uncover deviant dimensions in their research subjects, and
- to better synthesize their theories (De Vos, 1998).

The process is illustrated in Figure 4.2.

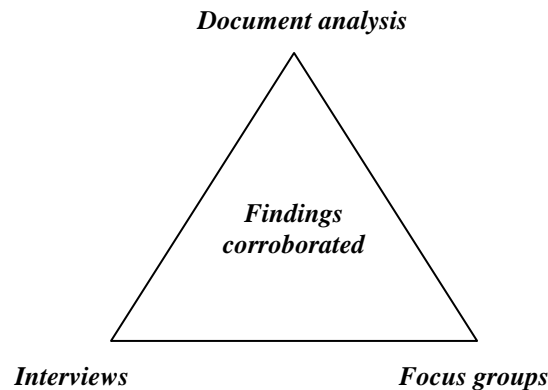


Figure 4.2: Triangulation

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Most universities, research centers and related organizations actively subscribe to moral standards requiring ethical behavior, especially regarding the protection of the rights of participants in research projects. Toward that end, Stellenbosch University has established the Office of Intellectual Property Rights to oversee and administer all University-sponsored research projects.

This researcher subscribes to a moral philosophy of research that translated to the following behavioral standards of correct conduct in research. The same promise of fair and ethical treatment applied to all who were involved in this research project whether they were co-investigators, participants, employers, assistants or students, therefore:

- no harm of any kind came to research participants;
- research participants voluntarily gave (and retained the right to withdraw) their informed consent;

- research participants were not be deceived in any way; and
- researchers were both competent and responsible.

The consent (see Appendix 1) and permission to audiotape forms (see Appendix 12) used by this researcher comprised the following information to protect research participants in accordance with the aforementioned ethical commitments:

- identity of the researcher;
- information about the research project;
- expectations about the research participant's contribution;
- the right to withdraw consent;
- confidentiality and security of data;
- signature of the research participant with the date; and
- signature of the researcher with the date.

Finally, to satisfy promises of privacy and confidentiality, all collected data was kept both anonymous and secure (Denscombe, 2003).

4.10 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to contribute to existing NGO management knowledge by developing a greater understanding of the execution and effectiveness of an NGO leadership-focused, international MBA program in economic development. The methods chosen for this study were appropriate to the research objectives.

The researcher collected data qualitatively in order to determine the effectiveness of the implementation of a program intervention. Documentary analysis established whether there was coherence between a committee's findings and the university's planned intervention. Interviews and focus groups generated data that told whether the plan was implemented as designed. The utilization of these mixed methods provided multiple viewpoints from which the researcher triangulated his results, which bolstered the strength of the study.

All research activity, analysis and interpretation related to this study was conducted in accordance with commonly accepted ethical standards and in concert with the guidelines governing research activity at Stellenbosch University. Successful execution of the research design and methodology enabled the investigator to publish research findings, which form the body of the following chapters.

CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Eastern University established its intervention plan of 2002 with input gained from internal stakeholders, program alumni and NGO development leaders. Research was conducted to determine whether implementation occurred as planned. Document analysis was done and interviews and focus groups were conducted in order to answer three research questions. A summary of the questions, research methods and data samples follow and will help to define how these intersect with each other and coordinate to an integrated whole.

5.1.1 First research question: *Were the University's findings consistent with the components of the 2002 the intervention plan?* The research method employed in the discovery process was document analysis. Presently available, established documents including surveys, focus group results, planning retreat notes, catalogs, correspondence, syllabi and the like were collected for analysis. The data sample included documents reflecting the input from four external advisors, alumni, students, faculty, staff and administrators.

5.1.2 Second research question: *Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?* The research method employed in the discovery process was facilitated focus groups and interviews. The data sample included thirteen current faculty, staff and administrators. Presently available, established documents including admissions and marketing records, promotional materials and organizational budgets and related correspondence were also collected and considered for analysis.

5.1.3 Third research question: *Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the changed program?* The research method employed in the discovery process with twenty-four current students was thirteen open-ended interview questions collected on-line via Survey Monkey. Only those students actually enrolled in the MBA program in economic development as of April 2007 were contacted for this study. The research method employed in the discovery process with twenty-one recent alumni was five open-ended interview questions collected on-line via Survey Monkey. Only those graduates from the post-2002 revised program, specifically the MBA in economic development graduates from 2003 through 2005, were contacted for this study.

Having reviewed the sources and methods of data gathering, the following section goes into greater length to synthesize the findings from these disparate sources in accordance with the research questions.

5.2 INTEGRATION OF FINDINGS

Findings relating to each of the three research questions were developed through documentary analysis, interviews and focus groups. In this section, data are arranged according to each research question where data are presented, analyzed and interpreted. Prior to considering the three research questions, it is important to understand more about the initial University findings that formulated the framework for the intervention plan of 2002.

In response to a mandate from the Dean of the Eastern University School of Leadership and Development contained in a letter dated August 2000, a task force of three administrators commenced a process of inquiry, which had as its goal to make a recommendation concerning the future of the MBA program in economic development. As a result, a multi-faceted effort was launched to gather the information that University administrators required for ultimately determining whether the program should be reformed or discontinued. This discovery process included the engagement of graduate

interns, faculty, staff, students and external resources, such as NGO leaders and NGO human resource officers.

Students played a significant role in the information gathering process. Several graduate student interns were dispatched to gather historical data to aid in understanding programmatic trends over the prior decade. Their reports comprised timelines of the program's history, detailed assessments of curricular changes over time, as well as graduation statistics. The interns also generated new data required for decision-making, consisting of personal interviews with faculty and staff, benchmarking research with competitive institutions and programs, and phone interviews with human resources officers of nongovernmental organizations to determine their training needs as well as perceptions of Eastern University's economic development program. Additionally, a group of international students from the program documented a critique of content, coursework and structure of the economic development program from an international point of view.

Faculty and staff also contributed to the process. A faculty member produced an enrollment history for the program's previous five-year period, while a staff member produced a document outlining the program's marketing challenges. Another staff member conducted a two-day focus group retreat with five NGO leaders to obtain their general feedback on the needs of NGOs, as well as their specific recommendations concerning the future status of the economic development program.

Finally, the program director and leader of the work group that was empowered to conduct this study, amassed documents from the recent past. These comprised:

- a 1998 research study by economic development faculty that sought input from various international students and groups to solicit input on how the economic development program might be delivered in other countries;

- a 1996 document from the economic development faculty that provided information on outcomes-oriented, faculty-generated curriculum outcomes for the program;
- a collection of economic development course syllabi and faculty summaries; and
- a strategic development document from 2000 composed to give direction to the program's first proposed international partnership.

From this research, the work group formulated the components of the 2002 intervention plan. These were crystallized into a program review executive summary document produced for consideration by the University administration and formed the basis for an organizational change project proposal that followed in 2002. This six-page document comprising the executive summary of the program summarized the work group's findings, moving from historical overview to a review of research to proposed scenarios and concluding with recommendations. The historical overview focused on program strengths and weaknesses. The review of research identified key research themes relating to program content, delivery and management. The proposed scenarios considered the advantages and disadvantages of two programmatic alternatives, one accelerated and campus-based, and the other a hybrid of overseas residential and distance delivery. Finally, the document concluded with a series of recommendations that formed the basis for completing the components of the intervention plan. Those components were originally identified in Sections 1.2.1 through 1.2.7 of this document; however, it is important to restate them briefly here along with the rationale given for each one.

Separation of international and urban economic development programs. The program will be separated into two distinct degrees, International Economic Development and Urban Economic Development, which will be delivered in distinct contexts by distinct faculties. Additionally, the programs will be staffed by distinct administrators, with the international economic development program being located in the School for Leadership and Development (SLD), and the urban economic development program being located in Philadelphia at the University's School for Social Change. The primary rationale given for this component was to enable both the international and urban economic development

programs to focus on the distinct markets each served. Admitting that economic development in US urban centers differed dramatically from developing countries, each would require “appropriate practitioner-faculty” and “curriculum designed to the needs of the region” (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002). The urban program’s desire to relocate to the city and the international program’s partnerships with several international NGOs provided additional rationale for the separation and relocation of international and urban programs.

Addition of overseas degree program option. The international economic development program would continue to be offered on campus, but would be augmented by the addition of an overseas-based distance version with limited residencies offered in partnership with indigenous organizations. The primary rationale given for this component was to respond to new market opportunities, including missionaries returning to the States for full-year furloughs and those remaining overseas “in the field”. The partnership requirement for developing an overseas delivery system for NGO staff was a related stimulus for the latter element of the component.

Reconfiguration of the economic development program director role. The international development program director position, having been vacated, would be reconfigured to satisfy new program realities and refilled. The primary rationale given for this component was to stabilize the program with faculty leadership by hiring a scholar practitioner to direct the program and to attract students, funds and faculty.

Use of current sources and case studies in curriculum. The faculty would conduct a formal and thorough review of the curriculum in light of changing issues in international development, to ensure the:

- a.) availability of updated syllabi;
- b.) utilization of updated and relevant texts;
- c.) inclusion of case-study methodology in teaching; and
- d.) development of case studies as part of the program assignments.

The primary rationale given for this component was to update an aging curriculum that was lacking currency, a practitioner orientation and scholarship from the developing world context.

Marketing emphasized for better enrollments. A concentrated marketing effort would be executed for the start-up initiative, made possible by increased budgetary resources for marketing during fiscal year 2002 to prepare for a fiscal year 2003 new program launch. The primary rationale given for this component was to offset recent perceptions of the program's instability and damaged relationships in its markets.

Establishment of a global alumni network. A coordinator would be assigned to establish an international alumni network, a formal network of alumni on each continent that would serve as the voluntary recruitment staff for all SLD programs, including economic development. The primary rationale given for this component was the existence of alumni in nearly fifty countries and their potential for assisting with recruitment, field experiences and instruction. The network was envisioned to be program representatives for international conferences, regional hosts for events and potential faculty for field and classroom instruction.

Creation of a development research institute. SLD would establish the Institute for the Advancement of Development as a vehicle for creating knowledge and collecting research on best practices in development. There was no stated rationale given for this component in the executive summary document.

Having surveyed the sources of the initial University findings and the rationale underlying their identification, it is time to return to the first research question concerning whether the findings were consistent with the previously identified components of the planned intervention of 2002.

5.2.1 Research question one - findings

Were the University's findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?

The integrated findings addressing the first research question follow each of the plan's interventions as noted in this section. "Consistency" means that the components of the 2002 intervention plan follow logically from the findings. Evidence relevant to the planned interventions suggested general consistency; however, the seventh component was the clearest exception, with little data available to back its proposed creation.

5.2.1.1 First intervention: *the program would be separated into two distinct degrees, namely International Economic Development and Urban Economic Development, which would be delivered in distinct contexts by distinct faculties. Additionally, the programs would be staffed by distinct administrators, with the international economic development program being located in the School for Leadership and Development (SLD) and the urban economic development program being located in the School for Social Change.*

Perhaps the plan's strategic first step was also the impetus to unleash the planning process. This is evident in the timing. While precise dates are missing in the documentation, sometime in 2000 a former program director reported that the President of the University "removed this program from one school, creating a new international school and moving this international economic development program to that new school" (Birmingham, 2002). An electronic memorandum laying down a mandate for intervention planning from the Dean of the new School of International Leadership and Development dated August 2000, verified that the planning process followed the establishment of the new school sometime before that date (Fraser, 2000).

The precise timing of the creation of the new school was not made clear from the evidence at hand. It was noted as happening during the first phase of the change initiative, which occupied August 2000 and June 2001 on the proposal's timeline.

Possible location toward the forward end of that time continuum was suggested in a report prepared by program co-supervisors, as follows:

In 2000, Eastern College made the decision to allow each of the program “tracks” to focus more specifically on the markets they serve. The program was divided into two separate programs run administratively from two schools within Eastern College. The School for International Leadership and Development now manages the International Economic Development program, in conjunction with its partnering organizations, while the School for Social Change manages the Urban Economic Development from its campus at 10th and Spring Garden in Philadelphia (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002:1).

Corroborating evidence, provided through an interview with a former administrator who stated that the matter “was already decided” (interview respondent 5A) prior to the report’s publication, only strengthens that assumption. Perhaps because the first action of the plan was already a reality by the time the documents finalized the plan of change, the documents reflect no findings to explain the action. Without such findings, it is difficult to understand consistency with existing needs or conditions. Such a lack of documentation can lead to conjecture, and one might imagine that the University acted swiftly to address an imminent threat or seize upon an irresistible opportunity. This sort of behavior, however, is not inconsistent with highly entrepreneurial cultures, as an administrator volunteered:

Every school has its culture and systems, and Eastern’s culture and systems have been to ... get an idea on Monday and by Friday it’s moving down the tracks regardless of money or personnel, and then once it’s going clean it up after the fact. (Interview respondent 6A)

In conclusion, while there remains some uncertainty concerning the timing of the change, there is no doubt the desired change occurred and there exists consistency between this component of the plan and the findings.

5.2.1.2 Second intervention: *the international economic development program would continue to be offered on campus, but would be augmented by the addition of an overseas-based distance version with limited residencies offered in partnership with indigenous organizations.*

The findings are unambiguous in their coherence with the second planned intervention. In his rationale for mandating an intervention with the economic development program, the Dean observed that the program failed at its chief aim as the "... majority of international students do not return to their countries or continents of origin to use the skills and concepts of economic development for the poor". His conclusion was to charge that the intervention process lead to a recommendation to "revitalize", "reinvent" or "terminate" the program (Fraser, 2000:1).

A focus group of international students studying in the US at Eastern University refined the Dean's assessment, stating, "those international students connected to an organization will return to their home country, this provides accountability to organization in home country. Students who are not 'rooted' in their home country do not return" (Birmingham and DiRaddo, 1998:4). When asked about the benefits of offering a distance-learning economic development program in their own country, the focus group responded with a list of advantages and challenges. The advantages over travel and residency in the US consisted of: less expense, greater access, family-friendly, convenience, culturally sensitive, praxis-based, and minimally disruptive to work and service. The same students noted several challenges to distance education, all of which related to the expense of accessing and sporadic availability of technology throughout much of the developing world (Birmingham and DiRaddo, 1998).

Findings from the NGO Industry Leader focus group, while different in orientation, were also consistent with the eventual plan. The NGO leaders were concerned with the extensive time away from the field required by the current US-based development program. The statement, “no one can afford to lose staff for two years” summarized the leaders’ sentiments. They called for “appropriate education”, which they defined as “two-week to two-month intensives, education of staff while continuing to work, traveling ‘road show’ to different global locations at ‘off’ times, modularized skill-based programs taught by practitioners, graduate level but not traditional delivery system and flexibility” (DiRaddo, 2001:6).

A report of an NGO phone survey with fourteen organizations revealed similar findings.

Organizations are primarily focused on meeting their mission objective or living up to their organizational core values. Therefore, time in the field takes precedence to extended periods of time in training or for education ... Organizations preferred conferences, seminars, or modular courses as the primary method of delivery ... Time seems to be a major issue, both in length and when courses are offered (Smith, 2001:19).

It should be noted that the economic development program previously attempted to address the limiting problems of time and distance, but without success. In 1996, the director of business programs announced changes to the curriculum that would streamline the residency requirement to seventeen months by integrating distance-learning modules with the program. This development would “increase the viability of the program to especially missionaries on furlough and minimize the enculturation of students from other lands” (Stapleford, 1996a). Evidently, the initiative did not produce convincing enough results.

The NGO phone survey report identified the importance of partnerships to NGOs. Eleven of the fourteen surveyed organizations reported having both formal and informal partnerships. Those lacking partnerships indicated their desire for such (DiRaddo, 2001).

Indeed, partnerships were growing in importance for the economic development program as well. A graduate student intern's history of the economic development program identified a program director's identification of the need for partnership with other Christian institutions as early as 1988 (Heidelbrecht, 2005). During the following decade, several program partnerships emerged with universities in Russia and China. A partnership document identified that in 2000, Eastern's first institutional partnerships were established with World Vision International and with Cape Town-based, Cornerstone Christian College (Cornerstone Christian College, 2000).

The stated need for an overseas-based distance version of the campus program in partnership with indigenous organizations satisfies the issue of consistency between the second planned intervention and the findings. Indeed, the emergence of international partnerships based on the proposition of an overseas delivery assured movement in that direction.

5.2.1.3 Third intervention: *the international development program director position, having been recently vacated, would be reconfigured to satisfy new program realities and should be filled as soon as possible.*

The findings suggest the economic development program experienced a high turnover rate among program directors. A timeline of the program's directors follows in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Tenures of economic development program directors
Source: Eastern University, 2004b

NAME	TENURE
Dr. Van Weigel	1984–1985
Mr. Ram Subramanian	1985–1991
Ms. Lee Thompson	1991–1994
Mr. Richard Ross	1994–1996
Mr. George Covington (interim)	1996–1997
Ms. Cynthia Moultrie	1998–2000
Ms. Robin Lowery and Ms. Beth Birmingham	2000–2002
Ms. Elizabeth Israel	2002–2004
Ms. Beth Birmingham (interim)	2004–2006
Dr. David Bronkema	2006–current

Between 1984 and 2002, the average tenure for a program director was just over two years, with tenures decelerating toward the end of that continuum (Eastern University, 2004b). A graduate student intern's recounting of program history concluded:

Of the reasons given for the high turnover rate, lack of administrative support, staff conflict, and being overworked were all listed as contributors. A number of the Directors interviewed indicated that they left because they had grown too tired (Heidelbrecht, 2005:58).

The urgency of this situation, given the premium on relationship building across cultures, was highlighted in a report composed by former co-directors of the program:

The international economic development program has had four directors since 1996. In a program recruiting and educating people coming from highly relationship-based cultures, our turnover has damaged our maintenance of relationships and has given a world-wide impression of program instability (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002:2).

Therefore, consistency exists between these findings and the third planned intervention. The history of turnover at the program director's position merited a reconfiguration and refilling of the position.

5.2.1.4 Fourth intervention: *The faculty would conduct a formal and thorough review of the curriculum in light of changing issues in international development, to ensure*

- a) the availability of updated syllabi;*
- b) utilization of updated and relevant texts;*
- c) inclusion of case-study methodology in teaching; and*
- d) development of case studies as part of the program assignments.*

The Dean, in his August 2000 mandate for programmatic intervention, observed that, “the program no longer serves its original mission well” (Fraser, 2000:1). An interview with a former program director referenced the complex nature of advising students due to her predecessor’s frequent revisions of the program’s curricular requirements. Indeed, a master’s thesis examining the history of the economic development program notes that “courses were revised and updated often, curriculum was frequently substituted and adapted to fit the demands of students, and required credit hours were changed more than once” (Heidelbrecht, 2005:8).

A review of the MBA and college catalogs confirms a consistent pattern of curricular change (Eastern College, 1992b). The first curricular description in the 1985–1987 catalog identifies a 48-credit graduation requirement. The following 1987–1989 catalog reveals a relaxation of that requirement to 45 hours for the “two-thirds world track” and 42 hours for the “inner city track”. The next catalog, published for 1989–1990, reflects that the inner-city concentration increased its graduation requirement to 45 hours to be consistent with the two-thirds world track. Another seismic change occurred during the 1995–96 and 1996–97 academic periods. The credit requirement for graduation dropped three hours to 42 credits, and the composition of the degree changed significantly. In what looked like a reversal of 1987–89’s efforts to strengthen its quantitative offerings, the new curriculum substituted four new courses for older ones and dropped a required internship. Dropped core courses included managerial accounting, organizational behavior, theology, quantitative decision-making, and international marketing and integrative projects (internship). Replacing them were community organization, finance and management, God’s kingdom, leadership and empowerment and community-based development training. In notes made by the Director of business programs in preparation for a 1997 meeting with the Provost, the proposed curriculum was described as “shorter, there is far more interaction between the classroom and the field, and there is a stronger theological emphasis throughout the courses” (Stapleford, 1997).

In 1997, a field component was added, requiring entire entering classes to begin their studies overseas for a required three-week extended experience in economic

development, but after a challenging initial implementation, this requirement was dropped. So was community-based development training, which was an additional fieldwork requirement that placed students with Philadelphia community development corporations for 240 hours of required service for three hours of graduate credit.

There exists evidence the faculty initiated at least several outcomes assessments of the economic development program (Engel, 1996; Bower, 1996; Eastern University, 2000). An international students' focus group reported in 2001 their gratitude for efforts at curricular review.

We commend the faculty for initiating a review process of the program and encourage them to take a new look at the programs' core-courses and rethink the programs' economic development philosophy with its "micro" focus and emphasis on (corporate) business management" (Kreig et al., 2001:2).

However, the international students balanced their appreciation with a critical analysis of the program's shortcomings. The latter were by far more prevalent and included lengthy challenges to program content (especially its lacking emphasis on micro-enterprise development) and philosophy (fashioned too closely to corporate business management). The students included calls to balance macro awareness with micro approaches and to replace traditional business subjects with global development economics.

A group of international students queried in 1998 also identified proposed changes to revise the curriculum, consisting of the following: fewer finance and business courses; more issue-oriented, development strategies; issues in community development; agriculture; primary health care and sanitation; and ethical courses (Birmingham and DiRaddo, 1998).

The report by the NGO leader focus group revealed a critique of the economic development program for lacking an internship, or experiential component, adding:

If a person has no experience in economic development before graduate schoolwork, then he or she needs experience to be incorporated into the graduate education. Real world experience can occur by going to an economic development organization and working, doing a project for a minimum six weeks for up to three months (DiRaddo, 2001:6).

To assess the age of textbooks at the time of intervention, economic development course syllabi from the 2000–2001, the year immediately preceding the intervention, were examined. Required texts listed with publication dates tended to be older. Seventeen required texts were less than three years old. Twenty-one texts were between four and ten years old. Thirteen texts were more than ten years old. In the year 2000, the median publication year for listed texts was 1995. It is difficult to ascertain with certainty the contemporary relevancy of texts, especially when many of the older titles are reputed to be “classic texts”. Even so, the utilization of thirteen more-than-a-decade-old texts suggests a degree of consistency with the planned intervention.

One means of assessing textual relevancy in an international program is to consider how many of the texts are non-Western in their origin (Janzi, 1999). Of the texts required for the economic development program in 2000–2001, only 18% were from non-Western authors.

Despite some evidence to the contrary, consistency seems to exist largely between findings and the fourth planned intervention. While there were static periods during the program’s initial years, the documents suggest that the economic development curriculum was extremely dynamic, almost fluid. Even though curricula were constantly changed, their required texts appeared to have been less current than one might expect. Additionally, they were overwhelmingly Western in their orientation, which relates to the relevancy reference in the intervention. It is slightly more challenging to assess consistency of the last two elements due to the lack of documentary evidence testifying to case studies in the classroom and as assignments.

5.2.1.5 Fifth intervention: *a concentrated marketing effort would be executed for the start-up initiative, made possible by increased budgetary resources for marketing during fiscal 2002 to prepare for a fiscal 2003 new program launch.*

The Dean's mandate notes "that declining enrollments have raised questions about the market, that the loss of supporting revenues means a net loss to the school, leading to other programs subsidizing it" (Fraser, 2000:1). The Executive Summary documented that "the graduate admissions recruiter position for this program has experienced similar turnover rates", also noting that marketing and communications were "significant needs" (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002:2). A memorandum from the director of business programs (Stapleford, 1996b:1) tells a similar tale:

The trends are not good. From a peak of 112 in fiscal year 1993, Economic Development enrollment in fiscal year 1996 is 68, a drop of 39% ... Economic Development conversion rates are low. Of the 90 applications to Economic Development, only 22 students enrolled ... Do we need improved marketing, including increased spending on marketing?

Further evidence is documented in a series of marketing conversations in 1996 and 1997 between this director and senior administrators. In a memo to the Dean the following month, the director outlined a "crude" marketing plan and asked for \$25 000 to fund it (Stapleford, 1996a). Three weeks later the admissions officer and communications director followed with a "final marketing plan" that contained a \$71 000 budget (Royal-Moses and MacTavish, 1996). Evidently, the plan was not funded because the Director of business programs repeated his request the following year with an e-mail request to the Dean to have "\$20 000 added to the current \$6 000 slated for the economic development program" (Stapleford, 1997). Meeting notes suggested that the Director of business programs verbalized this request in a meeting with the Provost (Stapleford, 1996c). The distance education student focus group encouraged the program to "clearly define your initial target audience" (Birmingham and DiRaddo, 1998:2). The NGO phone research report noted mixed results, with 11 of 14 organizations acknowledging scant knowledge

of the economic development program with no more than three aware of its international impact. Reaching for answers, the author noted (Smith, 2001:27):

Conversations with faculty indicate that there has been little to no marketing or budget actions for the program in the past five years ... Marketing and budgets were not attainable ... The Economic Development program needs a marketing plan and marketing actions.

The 33% drop in total enrollment over the prior five years demonstrated in Table 5.2 illustrates the report's frank conclusions and further establishes consistency between the findings and this component of the plan. In other words, Table 5.2 demonstrates that falling enrollments are also consistent with the plan's response to boost marketing efforts.

Table 5.2: Enrollment history of economic development (1996–2001)

Source: Lowery, 2001

	1996–1997	1997–1998	1998–1999	1999–2000	2000–2001
New students	28	27	12	24	21
Total enrollment	69	56	40	41	46

5.2.1.6 Sixth intervention: *a coordinator would be assigned to establish an international alumni network, a formal network of alumni on each continent that would serve as the voluntary recruitment staff for all SLD programs, including economic development.*

Sources agreed about the untapped potential of economic development alumni scattered around the globe. The NGO leaders' focus group suggested that efforts be made to network with alumni and their organizations (DiRaddo, 2001). "Found" alumni could provide input on the qualities of the program and including its missing elements (Birmingham and DiRaddo, 1998). Mostly what is anticipated from alumni, however, is promotional assistance. Based on an 81% program approval rating from alumni, two graduate students who conducted an alumni survey for the program recommended the

program “use alumni to publicize the program” (Bromley and Carlson, 1990:5). The Executive Summary remarks that the program’s “number one recruiting tool” has been the voluntary “word of mouth and personal networking” of alumni in nearly fifty countries (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002:1). The Summary also notes that the “alumni network coordinator will provide continued communication and relationship building for these important networks” (Birmingham and Lowery, 2002:2). There exists, therefore, clear consistency between the documentary evidence and the need for the sixth component of the 2002 intervention plan.

5.2.1.7 Seventh intervention: *The School of Leadership and Development (SLD) would establish the Institute for the Advancement of Development as a vehicle for creating knowledge and collecting research on best practices in development.*

NGO leaders posed the idea of an institute in their focus group proceedings; however, it differed from the component of the intervention plan in that it would exist to provide both non-formal (intensive specific training) and formal (degreed) study opportunities as opposed to possessing a research orientation. This approach combined intensive, non-formal study experiences at an institute with a “real world project” to result in a degree (DiRaddo, 2001).

Beyond this idea, there existed no other mention of an institute of any kind. These limited findings, therefore, fail to establish consistency with the seventh component of the 2002 intervention, which was the establishment of the Institute for the Advancement of Development as a vehicle for creating knowledge and collecting research on best practices in development.

To summarize Section 5.2.1 addressing the first research question, documentary evidence suggests general consistency with six of the seven components of the 2002 intervention plan. In other words, the intervention plan made sense in light of what the findings suggested ought to be done. The seventh component was the clearest exception, with little data available to back its proposed creation.

Having addressed whether the plans followed logically from the findings, question two examines whether the components of the 2002 intervention plan were successfully executed.

5.2.2 Research question two - findings

Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?

The objective of the second research question was to establish whether there was fidelity between activities and the plan, which preceded them, and wherever applicable to understand the reasons for alternative activities. Data were generated through interviews with eight current and former administrators. Additional findings were generated through two focus groups with six current faculty and staff. Documentary evidence concerning budgets and marketing activities were secured and scrutinized. These findings were triangulated with interview and focus group sessions, which were recorded, transcribed and analyzed for themes relating to the seven planned program interventions of 2002. Other commonly occurring and insightful themes were noted as well. Complying data was color-coded and organized in order to report on findings accordingly.

5.2.2.1 First intervention: *the program would be separated into two distinct degrees, International Economic Development and Urban Economic Development, which would be delivered in distinct contexts by distinct faculties. Additionally, the programs would be staffed by distinct administrators, with the international economic development program being located in the School for Leadership and Development (SLD) and the urban economic development program being located in the School for Social Change.*

As mentioned in Section 5.2.1.1, the first planned intervention was well underway prior to the production of the plan. While documentary analysis failed to establish a specific

date for separation, the interviews suggested a more specific date. A former administrator identified the process as follows:

... it was in 1999 when the President came back from one of the World Vision meetings with a vision to create an international school. He already had it in his head that he was going to create the Campolo School of Urban Work – I forget what the name was back then – and he wanted to create an international school, but he had to wait until [the Dean] returned from his Kenya sabbatical, which he left in June of '99 and got back in December of '99. So the School of International Leadership and Development (SILD) wasn't created until early 2000 and not officially on the books until July 2000. (Interview respondent 1A)

Later in the interview, the same respondent noted the official date for the creation of the School of International Leadership and Development as July 2001, but all other evidence suggested that statement was an error. In fact, several questions later, the same respondent, referencing the emergence of the new programs, stated, “by August 2000, they would have already been split because it would have been the new fiscal year” (interview respondent 1A). There was consensus among all other respondents that this action had indeed occurred, and while not all could account for the precise timing, none argued with the premise that it might have preceded the plan.

Interestingly, respondents were more interested in the reasons for the separation than in anything else. Both interviewees and focus group participants suggested many potential reasons for the division of the program into two degrees administered by two separate schools. Most agreed that the existing program experienced great financial shortfalls, and something had to be done to enhance the long-term growth and development potential for both the urban and international programs. Illustrating that was a senior administrator's statement that, “... we did it with the understanding that both programs would be able to grow and become sustainable over, we hoped, a three-to-five year period.” (Interview respondent 8A)

Almost as many identified that the current program experienced a philosophical divide with the program's founder, and his subsequent withdrawal of support threatened the program's future. A staff member summarized the shared impression as follows:

Without naming names, different people had strong opinions about urban and international, and they happened to be in different departments ... I think there were some good reasons to put each program in a different school, but I think the Pennsylvania Department of Education has it as one program, and they probably should have stayed together and been administered together.
(Focus group respondent 11B)

The program's demise was also attributed to internal politics and the clash of personalities, as indicated by these staff persons reporting out in distinct focus groups:

I think politics was the large measure of the issue. There were some leaders who were not in agreement on things, primarily on the level of focus. The issue was, when the programs were together, a program director whose interest was international would neglect the urban sphere and vice versa.
(Focus group respondent 11A)

I think they were personality-driven ... And I think that coming apart was not based on mission and curriculum, but was based on personality. (Focus group respondent 10C)

Mission drift was noted by the former Dean as having attributed to the program's low enrollments and low graduation rates. Alternatively, the possibility of expanded program and marketing partnerships requiring the existence of separately organized schools, each having its own focus and programs, was highlighted by an administrator, as follows: "The value of partnerships – since we had lost some of our large funding sources it was prudent to find partners for the international program." (Interview respondent 8A)

What also emerged as significant is that the program has remained in flux ever since, changing from merged to separated to merged to separated to merged again. These staff and faculty voices are among those who stated it most clearly:

The interesting thing about that is that the program was initially one degree, then it was split into two degrees, then it was blended back when I was brought on ... we were constantly putting it together and pulling it apart. (Interview respondent 5A)

Where it refers to separating to two degrees, I recall that because there was a high level of frustration when there was talk of undoing what had recently been done. Why were they talking about this again when it had been examined so thoroughly? (Interview respondent 2A)

It's gone back and forth whether it's separate or together, separate or together and back together. Of course, that's out of the five-year period ... I don't agree that separating them is always the best. And that's why we're back together. (Focus group respondent 10C)

We've bounced back and forth in terms of how and where the urban and international concentrations would be offered. I think it would have been better if we were more stable with that. It seems to me that having them in one house would be good. Right now, they are back in one house, and I think that is a good call. (Focus group respondent 11C)

Finally, several suggested the ebb and flow of the first planned intervention might have resulted from forced process, or a lack of clarity concerning the philosophical divide behind the change. Much of the confusion related to urban questions as follows:

I remember that one item was to separate the urban program and make it more viable and locate it in the city. That was definitely imposed on us from the outside. I think that was due to our securing the 10th and Spring Garden location [in downtown Philadelphia]. But that created a problem because many of our students were international but also urban – in other words they intended to do international development in a Third-World city. (Interview respondent 5A)

The other issue was a debate at the time about whether urban issues are different than international issues since most of the developing world's population lives in cities. But are the urban issues there different from US urban issues? (Focus group respondent 11A)

In conclusion, the proposed separation of the program into international and urban schools with distinct administrations and locations was initially executed as planned. However, neither program thrived in isolation, with the urban program suffering its greatest decline. As a result, the original decision was reversed, with the urban and international development programs being consolidated under the School for Leadership and Development (SLD) administration in 2007. Class locations now include both campus and urban settings, and urban faculty and partner experiences assure urban students of a distinctive experience. In the case of the first planned intervention, therefore, while it failed to be executed, the changes in activities were justified due to lack of sustaining enrollments for the new model.

5.2.2.2 Second intervention: *the international economic development program would continue to be offered on campus, but would be augmented by the addition of an overseas-based distance version with limited residencies offered in partnership with indigenous organizations.*

The second planned intervention was successfully executed over a period of several years. After a year-long “sabbatical”, the campus-based economic development program returned in 2002, as reported by a senior administrator:

Keeping the program alive on campus was a really good idea. At the time, I was opposed to it because I thought it hypocritical to have an international development program in St. Davids, Pennsylvania ... Though I still think it is best to have a highly contexted program, there is room here for that program on campus, and I hope that in time it becomes even more elevated. (Interview respondent 8A).

Indeed, the campus-based development program has grown and stabilized since the 2002 intervention (Joseph-Brown, 2007). The overseas options have also been realized, but not until after working through several early efforts that had mixed results, as reported by a faculty member:

We had a great idea, it seemed to me earlier than this, that we would offer all courses on-line, so we went out and got a grant for a high-tech classroom and recorded all the classes, and it was the talking heads and people didn’t like them and we had these big bulky cassettes. It was a great idea, but the medium didn’t work, and we didn’t have the proper training. (Interview respondent 5A)

Also under consideration was a wholesale move of the program to an overseas location. The former administrator charged with investigating options remembers:

The program was being offered on campus, however we were in heavy discussions as to whether the program needed to stay in the US. That summer of 2002, we were doing a lot of research about whether the school might move to South Africa, possibly Kenya, and at one point we were also looking at Cyprus. (Interview respondent 3A)

Eventually matters became more aligned with the second planned intervention, which was to compliment the campus-based program with overseas residency based options. A former administrator recalled the impetus behind that conclusion:

For me the most important of all has to do with mission accomplishment. And it seemed to me part of the question was, “if we’re going to do this program, is it better to do it in a context other than in North America?” If, in fact, we are going to build capacity and our goal in the end is not a certain number of graduates from the program ... if our goal is really to make a substantive impact in the majority world, then how do we do that? (Interview respondent 6A)

In fact, the University conducted its first overseas residency independently in South Africa in March 2005 after a failed partnership with Cape Town’s Cornerstone Christian College. Realizing the final aspect of the second planned intervention, “in partnership with indigenous organizations”, has proved itself most challenging as revealed by a focus group participant.

There was certainly openness to partnership and a seeking there, but I wouldn’t say that any of the partners we established were indigenous per se. World Vision, English Language Institute of China and Habitat for Humanity are international. For a little while there was Cornerstone and South Asian Institute for Christian Studies, but they didn’t really last. (Focus group respondent 11B)

Another member of the same focus group continued the conversation suggesting that the challenge of organizational partnership has to do with like-mindedness and shared objectives.

I think South Asia Institute for Christian Studies (SAICS) was a non-credit training organization. Going to them with a graduate degree was too large a

leap I believe. Funding was also an issue ... Cornerstone Christian College seemed to be a money issue, and they didn't have that many students. It seemed like there was a desire to partner, but they had so many funding challenges, and then they changed leadership. (Focus group respondent 11A)

The overseas residency in development has completed four annual cycles in Africa. An Asian overseas program is planned for start-up in 2010. The understanding of "indigenous partnership" is evolving as well. Presently, the partner in Africa is Stellenbosch University's School of Theology, and the arrangement is primarily contractual in nature. The likely partner in Asia is Women's Christian College in Chennai, an indigenous graduate degree-granting institution.

In summary, both aspects of the second planned intervention were satisfied. The campus program has continued and stabilized, while an overseas-based, distance version of the curriculum with limited residencies and an indigenous partner has been launched successfully in South Africa.

5.2.2.3 Third intervention: *the international development program director position, having been recently vacated, would be reconfigured to satisfy new program realities and be filled as soon as possible.*

The third planned intervention was quickly satisfied as one of the participants in the NGO leaders focus group was invited to accept a program leadership position. A program director reported, "The position was filled in 2002" (Interview respondent 1A). Soon thereafter, however, the situation unraveled, there was a separation and the reopened position languished for several years. Several respondents suggested that it was simply a bad hire – a wrong fit for the position.

So the position was created, but the challenge was it wasn't necessarily the best fit for the person that was hired. (Focus group respondent 11A)

At the end of the day, a program director has to direct the program, and that involves a lot of administrative and programmatic skills and attention to detail that some idea people don't have ... the program was suffering because of that. (Focus group respondent 10B)

Two interesting alternative theories were voiced and merit attention. One was that it was a time of turbulence for the University as a whole, and this may have impacted the program's (and hence the new director's) performance. A veteran staff person opined:

The university itself had gone through a number of restructurings during this time. I think that may have had an impact on this. For example, this program became a part of a new graduate college at the University. Then the graduate college was split into three entities: the School for Social Change, the School of Professional Studies and this one, the School of Leadership and Development. This design was to position for growth that didn't occur, due to a number of things, including 9/11 and the tech bubble ... So, players shifted, focus shifted, pieces shifted around ... even the offices shifted during that time. (Focus group respondent 11A)

Another staff person extended the focus group conversation with an interesting revelation and second theory, which was that the new director's supervisor was unable to orient the new hire because the supervisor:

... went on extended leave just as the new director was hired, so there wasn't the time to properly guide the new Director in the direction she wanted ... The lack of clarity in the day to day of what this person was to do probably contributed to her dismissal. (Focus group respondent 11C)

There followed an interim director, but a staff person noted, “that person was an urban person ... and the international faded quite a bit” (Focus group respondent 11B). The interim director was reassigned to the urban school, and the international position was handled by a replacement interim director until a permanent hire was made.

Similarly, there were multiple theories concerning the difficulties with locating and retaining a stable international development director, a bane of the program for many years. Several pointed to the fact that prior directors were not academicians and therefore lacked power over their own programs. One faculty member volunteered:

That whole position was always a problem. Although, what I saw as the key problem was not what others saw. The problem was that the position had no power. All the people who had that position never had the authority they needed to do anything ... It needed to have faculty status, but it also needed to have big experience – it needed to have weight behind it. (Interview respondent 5A)

Eventually, the position of the international development program director was filled again in 2006. However, for the first time since the founding director it bore faculty status. This was roundly welcomed as necessary to the position’s potential success, as indicated by these faculty and staff focus group participants:

It was reconfigured and rehired with an academic emphasis. I believe it was bolstered with a chair position so we could definitely get someone with an academic skill set to bring to it. (Focus group respondent 11B)

We now have an academic director, and I think it’s a strong positive ... I can see that’s been a real significant piece in making the program work. It was

critical to make that transition, to get full-time faculty ... I think that is a part of stabilizing the program. (Focus group participant 10B)

The position of the international development program director was reconfigured to secure a candidate who would possess faculty status and occupy an endowed chair at the University. The person filling that position in 2006 remains there after three years and has been well received by colleagues, students and administration. Consequently, the program activities have matched those described in the plan. After a false start, the position of the international development program director was successfully filled and remains so.

5.2.2.4 Fourth intervention: *The faculty would conduct a formal and thorough review of the curriculum in light of changing issues in international development, to ensure the:*

- a) availability of updated syllabi;*
- b) utilization of updated and relevant texts;*
- c) inclusion of case-study methodology in teaching; and*
- d) development of case studies as part of the program assignments.*

While a smaller amount of detailed evidence exists in response to this intervention, there was unanimity concerning program and curricular review, even if the review and its outcomes have not been universally welcomed. A staff member summed up the evolving curriculum this way: “The curriculum was revised again” (Interview respondent 3A).

Most, however, greeted the intervention as a positive development. A senior administrator emphasized its basis in best practices and consistency with University’s standard operating procedures:

This idea that the faculty would exercise proper program review that was informed by what was happening in the external environment is the way Eastern should be doing business ... It was good that the reviews would

spring from the work that was done in the conference when the experts and our faculty gathered to propose the separate directions. We had a base from which to evaluate ourselves. (Interview respondent 8A)

Several former program directors agreed that this was the case with the revised program, with one stating it this way:

I had a plan that every five years every degree program in SLD would get a thorough review. That's not required by the Pennsylvania Department of Education, but it's for our own good (interview respondent 1).

A staff member attributed this to the evolution of the program from being staff-driven to faculty-directed:

I think all of this is increased because of our two program directors, who are both academics and practitioners, so that has boosted this area in the last year and a half ... In 2004, we had zero full-time faculty and now we have three ... I think that's important. We've always had faculty, but they've always been shared with other departments. And there were adjuncts and others who have been critical to the program, but we've never had our own full-time faculty, until now. (Focus group respondent 11C)

The transition to a faculty-led program with a dedicated corps of educators seems to be a significant point in the program's maturation. The additional institutional resources dedicated to ensure that transition (Figure 5.1) resulted in the establishment of a programmatic culture that no longer lacked the capacity to ensure both currency and relevancy. One element of instructional investment that changed culture was the deployment of an electronic teaching resource, Blackboard, which makes all classroom tools available to registered students regardless of location. These included annually updated syllabi, course assignments and class texts.

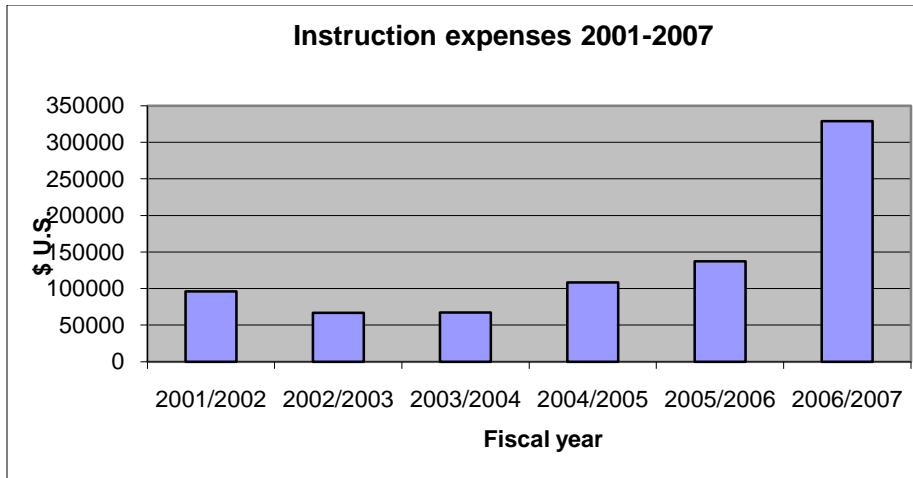


Figure 5.1: Economic development (campus and overseas) program instruction expenditures

Source: Berol, 2007

An interview with the current director of the economic development program supported that texts were updated as noted in Table 5.3. This is supported in a following section responding to research question three, where feedback from student interviews communicated students' satisfaction with the texts in the revised program, which they claimed were both current and relevant (see 5.2.3.1).

Table 5.3: Comparative ages of economic development textbooks (as indicated by publication dates)

Source: 5.2.1.4; Interview respondent 56A

Publication dates of texts	Pre-intervention (in 2001)	Post-intervention (in 2007)
Five years or less	33%	47%
Six to ten years	41%	33%
More than ten years	26%	20%

Reflecting on the age and relevancy of texts further, the program director added these thoughts:

It is important to strike a balance between new and important works and those from the past that are timeless and constantly referenced by others ... I think

we are exactly where we need to be on this. I know from feedback from our students, that when they get out there they have found that not only are they not surprised by anything they find out there, they actually can contribute a lot to conversations and to the use of tools. (Interview respondent 56A)

Another indicator of textual relevancy in a program preparing economic developers for the developing world is the source of its texts. A concern identified by international students prior to the 2002 intervention plan was that too many texts were from Western sources. Table 5.4 demonstrates that a modest amount of progress has been made in addressing that critique.

Table 5.4: Comparative sources of economic development textbooks (pre- and post-intervention)

Source: 5.2.1.4; Interview respondent 56A

Source of texts	Pre-intervention (in 2001)	Post-intervention (in2007)
Developed world	82%	80%
Developing world	18%	20%

The current program director expanded on the conundrum he faced addressing this challenge:

In terms of Western texts, that is a tough one. I'll go out on an analytical limb here, and say that if our program was more "theoretically" oriented, then we would have a major problem here. In other words, the non-Western world has theoretical, conceptual, and practical knowledge (they are all, of course, linked), that is crucial for understanding the full dimensions of development. However, if you look at the "practical knowledge" in terms of it being codified in manuals and other "technical" literature that explains tools and approaches to social change, this seems to be written up by, for the vast part, Western authors ... if you are dealing with a MBA, which is a Western degree, with requirements that we have to cover particular fields, that will give it more of a slant towards the West. (Interview respondent 56A)

It is important to note the lack of dissonance from respondents to the first two points, specifically (a) updated syllabi, and (b) the utilization of updated and relevant texts. However, respondents had different opinions on the latter two points, namely (c) the utilization of case studies in teaching, and (d) the production of case studies by students. A former program director was unaware of the emphasis on case studies in the intervention: “I don’t recall ‘c’ and ‘d’ being anywhere on our ... [the Dean] always wanted case studies, but I don’t recall it being a part of our full-fledged outcome.” (Interview respondent 1A)

If the program director was not encouraging case studies, it seems the faculty may have been deploying them independently. Feedback from student interviews in the following section on program outcomes communicated their satisfaction with the use of case studies in the revised program, which they claimed both to have read and written (see 5.2.3.1). A staff member agreed, “I know that case studies have been a focus of ours ... I’ve heard that a lot from the faculty” (Focus group respondent 11B), while another faculty member added:

I think the energy about case studies comes from two of the newer faculty members, maybe three of us, and it’s nice to see it here that this was some of the thinking in the past as well (Focus group respondent 10C)

Of course, these multi-varied points are not mutually exclusive. Failure to remember on the part of an administrator does not disqualify successful outcomes by faculty, even if they had been achieved independently from a planned strategy. The important observation for this study is that these curricular activities have matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan.

5.2.2.5 Fifth intervention: *a concentrated marketing effort would be executed for the start-up initiative, made possible by increased budgetary resources for marketing during fiscal 2002 to prepare for a fiscal 2003 new program launch.*

If the fourth planned intervention largely lacked dissonance, respondents could not speak definitively to the question of whether extra resources were made available for unveiling the revamped program. The three closest responses to being on target hint at an answer, but in and of themselves fail to reveal enough to assure a confident conclusion. They came from both former and current staff members:

There was a kickoff concerning the new program, but recruiting was a challenge because of all this uncertainty in terms of place – where will I study, where will I be – those things that are important to students. There was turnover among the recruiters as well. (Focus group respondent 11B)

I didn't know what the budget was at the time so I wouldn't have known that more was being allocated to it, but I was aware that ads were happening and strategies were being discussed. (Interview respondent 4A)

When I joined the team in 2002, we had a marketing and recruiting person, who served with us, and this was her constant frustration that she shared in staff meetings – the lack of funding, the lack of resources, the lack of support – and she vacated her position at the end of the year in 2002. To the best of my knowledge, there were a lot of conversations about the need for marketing resources going forward, but I never saw the fruit of it, really. (Interview respondent 3A)

Respondents clearly preferred to voice their views on the general topic of marketing, which were wide-ranging and included the entire spectrum from affirmative to unaware to negative. Somewhere in the middle of that continuum was found a harmonious chord one might characterize by “there were discussions” and “we had conversations”. There

seemed to be no end to the talking, which suggests that marketing was a matter that defied resolution during the period of study.

A formidable challenge to the launch of the new program was circumstantial. The negative consequences of the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 on the US were substantive. US immigration severely tightened, and many American citizens felt unsafe venturing overseas. A former recruiter recalled:

There was a severe drop in student enrollment ... we had 30 strong applicants, but only six were able to attend that year ... Right after 9/11 there was a lot of anger, a lot of concern for safety issues, yes. A lot of mission organizations we talked about in staff meetings were being encouraged not to send, indeed, were encouraged to pull their people back American staff, you know, not knowing what was happening next. (Interview respondent 3A)

Other challenges, however, were internal, even structural in nature. A former program director and faculty member identified budgetary control as a constant frustration:

A concentrated marketing effort, um. That was always an adventure because we did not have control over our marketing dollars or our marketing personnel, so we were at the mercy of others to make decisions without really knowing our markets. There were considerable disputes over this. That wasn't very pretty. (Interview respondent 5A)

A review of University budgets demonstrated that an increase in marketing resources was indeed budgeted for the program's initial years as indicated in Figure 5.2. Marketing categories in this study included resources for advertising, printing and promotional attendance at conferences. It is important to note, however, that the increase in expenditures failed to precede the relaunch of the program in fiscal year 2003, which was the aim of the intervention.

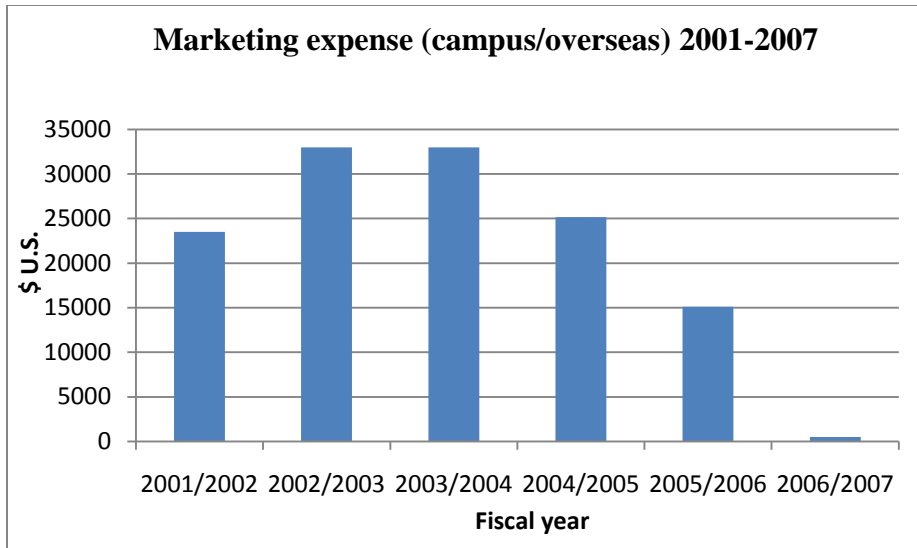


Figure 5.2: Economic development (campus and overseas) marketing expenditures

Source: Berol, 2007

It would be a fair assessment to conclude that marketing resources for the program all but disappeared during fiscal year 2007. However, marketing resources actually increased in that year, but one had to find them elsewhere because of a budgetary restructuring within the School for Leadership and Development. In fiscal year 2006, overhead costs from separate program budgets were migrated to a new, consolidated overhead budget. Included in those costs were marketing resources as illustrated in Figure 5.3 (following page).

The consolidated approach was a two-edged sword. While the marketing resources of fiscal year 2007 totaling \$41,000 were at an all-time high, they were now shared across multiple degree programs. Two of the three programs were in development, so two-thirds of the total is \$27,000, an amount smaller than previously available for these purposes. A counter argument might be proposed that the consolidation of funding increases marketing resources for the program in economic development. In fact, that may have been the approach because in recent years, advertisements for the program moved from a focused strategy to an omnibus strategy (featuring all the School's programs). This is a challenging point of view, however, because the omnibus approach requires that the message be diluted, which could lead to an argument that the marketing

resources for economic development were in fact diminished over the five-year intervention period. The next chapter will offer an assessment of whether this strategy succeeded or failed.

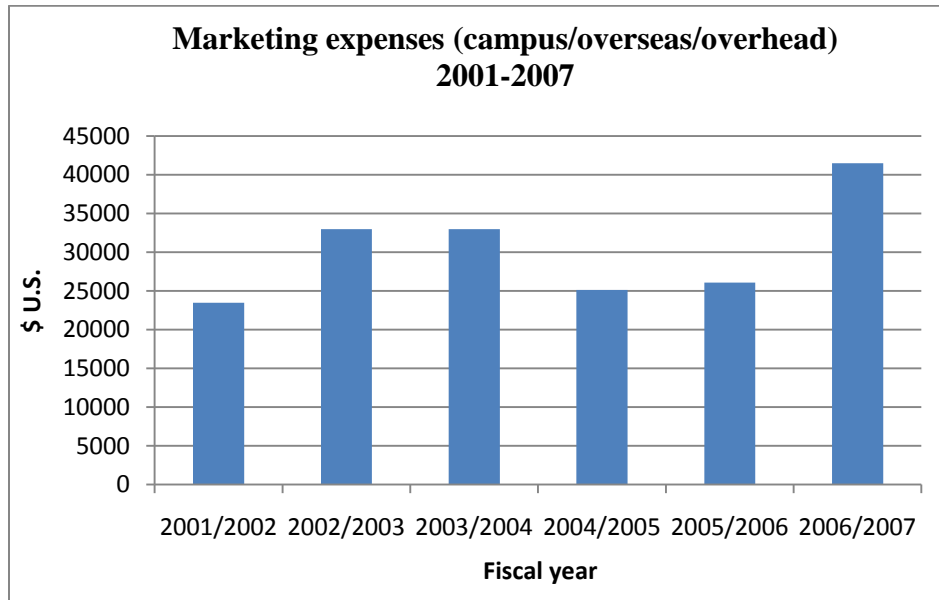


Figure 5.3: Economic development (campus, overseas and overhead) marketing expenditures

Source: Berol, 2007

The objective of this research question was to establish whether marketing efforts were both strategically timed and successful. The mandate from the Dean assumed that the proposed interventions (listed in 1.2.1 through 1.2.7) would stem the program's decline and strengthen enrollments (Fraser, 2000), however no evidence was uncovered that quantified growth objectives and enrollment expectations for the post-2002 economic development program.

Beyond that, the program's target market was broadly identified and lacked focus. A consolidated list of subjects' responses consisted of international students, missionaries, college students, pastors, development workers, professionals, government employees, and "anyone wanting to help the poor" (Interview respondent 4A). Not one interviewee affirmed that the target market was being satisfactorily reached.

This lack of definition for these two baseline assumptions makes discovering the answer to the research objective challenging at best. An examination of marketing activities during the period 2001–2007 may shed light on the question, as will actual program enrollments.

Between 2001 and 2007, two marketing directors serviced the development program, the first for two years and the second enjoying a four-year tenure. Neither produced a marketing plan. In fact, the first plan was produced in 2005 by economic development students for a marketing class assignment. During their tenures, both marketing directors pursued similar strategies, consisting of the placement of advertising, the production of collateral and promotional items and conference/event representation.

Advertising was the program's largest marketing expenditure, with a clear bias toward print media. Periodicals garnered the lion's share of the marketing budget throughout the six-year period. The first director placed advertisements in five periodicals in two years while the second placed advertisements in nine periodicals over four years. The periodicals varied from scholarly journals (*Evangelical Missions Quarterly*) to popular magazines (*Newsweek*). Only three global advertisement placements were made, which comprised Europe and South Africa. No comprehensive effectiveness assessments are available, however a 2005/2006 analysis found that fewer than 3% of inquiries and no applicants identified periodicals as a source of discovery.

Internet advertising was hardly utilized during the period in question. The first director only placed two Internet advertisements in two years. The second director placed only one Internet advertisement in four years. With no presence on the Internet beyond the institutional web site, the Internet in 2005/2006 was the program's largest source of inquiries and applicants by a significant margin. Fully 88% of economic development students identified the Internet as having "high importance" in their decision-making processes. This reveals the decision-making behaviors of inquirers after graduate programs and demonstrates the massive marketing possibilities of the Internet. Unfortunately, the development program failed to take advantage of the opportunity.

The final endeavor in advertising was through direct mail. No evidence exists that the first director used this strategy; however, the second employed it consistently during her tenure. Every year would include a mass mailing to hundreds of prospects and referral sources. In the final year, the mail strategy became electronic, utilizing monthly e-mails to all prospects. No collected evidence assessed the effectiveness of the direct or e-mail strategies.

In terms of promotional items and collateral, the first director printed posters, brochures, newsletters and fact sheets. To this she added tabletop displays and banners and assorted give-away items sporting the School's logo. The second director followed suit, adding executive summaries, frequently asked questions (FAQs) and PowerPoint presentations. She also commenced work on an interactive video and a marketing micro site prior to leaving the School. No collected evidence assessed the effectiveness of the promotional or collateral items.

During the six years under review, attendance at conferences and events grew in importance. The first director attended one college and one conference in two years for recruiting purposes. The second facilitated staff attendance at fourteen conferences in four years. Additionally, the second director had the graduate program connected with undergraduates at its own campus and six other campuses in the US and Canada. Seven percent of inquiries, but no applicants, claimed conferences as their initial inquiry source.

During the six-year period of study, three research activities centered on marketing issues and the development program, and they all occurred in 2005. The University's marketing director conducted focus groups with international economic development students to understand the reasons they selected the program and to establish whether their experiences were consistent with their expectations. Nine students from the graduate marketing class conducted extensive market research and developed a comprehensive marketing plan for the economic development program. Finally, the marketing director for the School of Leadership and Development sponsored a "survey of graduate

messaging”, trying to ascertain internal and external awareness of the program and its distinctive elements.

The University assessed that the economic development program missed important markets because of the quantitative requirements of the MBA degree. Those requirements consisted of undergraduate foundation courses in economics, statistics, finance and accounting for all non-business majors. Also required for the MBA were graduate courses in managerial accounting, global financial management, social entrepreneurship and market development.

Therefore, a Master of Science (eventually replaced by the Master of Arts in international development) degree was added to make the economic development program also available to those lacking either a quantitative aptitude or the prerequisite knowledge in the fields of finance, accounting and economics. The MA degree shared all of the core development-oriented courses with the MBA, such as cross-cultural understanding, applied research, social change and community development, while excluding the business skills courses previously identified.

From 2001 to 2007, enrollment for the international development program ebbed and flowed, but recent years have realized an upward trend, as demonstrated in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Economic development enrollments (new students only) by degree 2001–07

Source: Joseph-Brown, 2007

<u>Econ. development degrees</u>	<u>2001/02</u>	<u>2002/03</u>	<u>2003/04</u>	<u>2004/05</u>	<u>2005/06</u>	<u>2006/07</u>
MBA – campus	Redesign	4	6	14	5	8
MBA – overseas					4	2
MS/MA – campus	Redesign	2	9	11	4	15
MA – overseas					11	19
TOTALS		6	15	25	24	44

While total enrollment in the development programs at Eastern University have grown steadily since the 2002 intervention plan, the greatest contributor to recent growth is the

less-quantitatively oriented MA in International Development option. The program for the MBA in economic development has not satisfactorily reached its target audience.

Of even more concern than the program's questionable budgetary prioritization is a lack of analysis concerning effective marketing practices. This is not inconsistent with what most respondents perceived as the program's chronic marketing challenges. Several repeated the rhetorical question, "how do you market to the whole world on any budget?", revealing an unanswered challenge the economic development program faced. However, to the question at hand, the findings demonstrated that both budgetarily and practically the marketing activities in fiscal year 2002 were not consistent with the 2002 intervention plan's intention for expanded marketing activity prior to a new program launch. Neither were the changes in activities justified in any way.

5.2.2.6 Sixth intervention: *a coordinator would be assigned to establish an international alumni network, a formal network of alumni on each continent that would serve as the voluntary recruitment staff for all SLD programs, including economic development.*

Since the commencement of the intervention plan of 2002, the alumni coordinator's position has experienced constant change. The alumni coordinator position was filled immediately, in 2002, with a part-time staff member, but she did not persist. A staff person opined, "There was a hire and she worked for several months in that capacity. Then she was asked to leave" (Interview respondent 3A).

Another staff member and former colleague of the departed alumni director attempted to clarify what had happened:

There was conflict between that person and [the supervisor], and it was sort of an oil and water situation. And I think the point made before about the program being in crisis played out here with an urgency to get students now, which differed from that person's orientation to make friends for the long term. (Focus group respondent 11A)

Five years later the position remains unfilled despite near unanimous opinion of the sixth planned intervention's strategic soundness. A former program director volunteered, "We all like the idea, we just don't know how to implement the idea of an alumni group that recruits for us" (Interview respondent 1A).

After the first hire was released, the alumni function passed through many hands in the following years, but was always a minor (sometimes unwelcome) add-on to the full-time responsibilities of busy people. This was expressed by a program staff member, "There hasn't been someone whose focus has been alumni since that first person" (Focus group respondent 11B). A former program director recalled the nomadic journey of the role moving from:

... one person, then it switched to [the program director], and she did a pretty good job with it, but then she wanted to pass it on to [the administrative assistant]. She really wanted someone else to handle it because it was a lot of staying in touch and keeping up with alumni, so I think for a spell [the administrative assistant] had it until we hired [the marketing director]. No one's really wanted it. (Interview respondent 1A)

In 2006, the marketing director shed alumni responsibilities to a faculty member, who volunteered to manage these responsibilities on top of a full teaching load. The net result of constant transition has undeniably added to the program's marketing challenges. A former faculty member explained:

Somebody in the alumni office did a huge study to locate all alumni and identify their positions, and we had great hopes ... When we were connected with alumni like that we got gobs of students ... So I know the alum thing is a big plus, but we lost almost the whole chunk of it when [the department secretary] left. When she was here, she was a tiger. She let no one go without knowing where and threatening them to stay in touch. She was

constantly getting them information. When she left, all of her tenacity did as well, and no one picked it up. (Interview respondent 5A)

Clearly, the lack of progress on this initiative is both quizzical and disturbing, as reflected in the comments of a former administrator:

The sixth point [pauses, then sighs] was actually critical, and its one we've had a lot of trouble with. We needed a person to leverage an expansive network of international alums from the old economic development MBA courses, uh, and the first person we hired for this job clashed horribly with the director of the program so we didn't get any return on that investment. (Interview respondent 8A)

One respondent, an administrator and alumna of the program, expressed the her disappointment both personally and empathetically, "There were many years that, as alumni, we didn't hear anything from Eastern" (Interview respondent 2A). This sense of isolation was reflected back to the program from the field to their former faculty members.

You had alumni out there who had been great recruiters but now wondered if the program would survive, and that's likely to affect their enthusiasm ... We actually fielded calls from people thinking the program had been closed. (Focus group respondent 11A)

So, was the alternative path justified? Were the changes to the planned intervention made for good reasons? Overwhelmingly respondents agreed that the path taken was unintentional and lacked justification. It did not represent a change of strategy, but rather "just kind of happened that way". Multiple opinions expressed by both staff and faculty expressed similar conclusions:

It's sort of been left at the bottom of the pile of tasks and at least since I've been here, in the last two and a half years, and it looks here like it was a major initiative and I think the ball has been dropped on that one and now we need to pick it up again. (Focus group respondent 10C)

It's the tyranny between the strategic, the tactical and the urgent. So we know that we get our best leads, meaning greatest quantity of leads turned into students, from our alumni. But the objective of having a certain number of students in the class this fall drives us to look for them elsewhere. (Focus group respondent 11A)

Recently the role was assigned to a faculty member who carries a full teaching load ... She seems really excited about it and wants to take it on, but ... I think we may run into trouble again if we're not intentional. (Interview respondent 4A)

There's always been a persistent question, what to do with the alumni or what strategy to use, but nobody has really given it the time to think about it. It's always been, "Let's do this" and "Let's do that", and then some new priority would come through, and it would be "Let's take care of them tomorrow ...". Something else always takes priority over the alumni. It's always in the backs of all our minds, but it is never our first priority. (Focus group respondent 11C)

The persistent challenges staffing the alumni and program director positions may hint at a larger reality, which emerged in interviews and focus groups. Respondents volunteered that a total of seventeen personnel joined the ranks of program faculty and staff during the five years since the commencement of the intervention plan of 2002. Eleven of those seventeen have since departed, realizing very short tenures. Some took other positions elsewhere in the University, but most have left altogether. Six of the faculty and staff members who joined the program during that time remain in place.

Despite the claim that the area of alumni relations is “important work; it needs to be addressed”, the program’s lack of activity suggests otherwise. Clearly, the sixth planned intervention failed to be executed successfully, and no defensible justification existed for the lack of progress.

5.2.2.7 Seventh intervention: *SLD would establish the Institute for the Advancement of Development (IAD) as a vehicle for creating knowledge and collecting research on best practices in development.*

While the sixth planned intervention failed to be executed, all were aware of its strategic importance. Alternatively, few were even aware of the seventh planned intervention. Indeed, many respondents had no awareness of it at all. One faculty member stated, “I don’t know what that piece was supposed to look like” (Interview respondent 5A). A senior administrator offered, “I’m not aware at all of the Institute of Advanced Development” (Interview respondent 8A). A staff person added, “That I’ve never heard of [laughs] ... We’ve never done this IAD” (Interview respondent 4A).

Those who had heard of the Institute for the Advancement of Development were more acquainted with it in idea form only. It was an idea that was not realized, as several staff members and former administrators recounted:

Regarding the ... Institute, just vague concepts were shared in our staff meetings. I didn’t see any activity going forward with that ... Some of the things we talked about in 2002 kind of got halted, due to [the supervisor’s] sabbatical. (Interview respondent 3A)

Um, and that Institute of Advancement thing, I never got involved with that at all. In fact, it was sort of fuzzy at the time. (Interview respondent 5A)

A former program administrator questioned whether the item was ever really a planned intervention.

That's always been an idea ... So, while that was a desire, without any full-time faculty to have part of their load research, SLD was not going to mandate it of the business faculty, or the sociology faculty. (Interview respondent 1A)

One former program administrator became visibly agitated that a significant initiative went unstated:

So if you know if something is really strategic, in fact has been identified as one of the seven building blocks to a successful future, how do you ensure that it gets done? I was a director ... and I've never seen this before. (Focus group respondent 11A)

Interestingly and completely independently from the proposed intervention, several faculty members initiated their own development-oriented research centers at the University. One persisted for several years and then closed. A second was launched, but went dormant with the faculty member's retirement.

Therefore, the program's general lack of activity in this area has failed to satisfy the requirements of the seventh proposed intervention, and no reasonable justification exists for the lack of execution. In fact, no evidence exists that the original idea ever reached the planning stages.

To summarize the response to question two, evidence relevant to the seven planned interventions suggests mixed results in program execution. In other words, the first intervention was justifiably changed; the second, third and fourth interventions were satisfactorily completed; and the fifth, sixth and seventh interventions failed to match the activities described in the 2002 intervention plan.

5.2.3 Research question three - findings

Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the changed economic development program?

The research objective of this question was to establish whether the plan succeeded through measuring current student satisfaction, recent alumni assessments and evidence that the activity of recent alumni mirrored the program's expectations of its graduates. Data generated for this purpose included on-line interviews with twenty-four current University development students and twenty-one alumni who have graduated since the 2002 intervention plan took effect. In addition, five current students were engaged in a focus group.

5.2.3.1 Student satisfaction with program changes

In order to answer the research question, students were queried regarding whether they found the revised program helpful. When asked if their course textbooks were up to date and relevant to the changing conditions in international development, twenty-one students responded affirmatively. Those students' comments included:

Most are reflective of the nuances of the global environment in which we now live. (Interview respondent 22A)

Most of the texts are of recent date or when older texts are used it is clearly indicated that they are classics. (Interview respondent 32A)

The texts deal directly with the current issues that face those in development work. (Interview respondent 17A)

However, two students disagreed with the majority opinion and one was uncertain. Those disagreeing struck a common theme concerning contextualization, similar to the comment by an overseas student:

There is ... an undue US bias, or focus in some of the literature, which is not helpful. (Interview respondent 38A)

When students were asked if course instruction included references to case studies, the majority of students (19 of 21) responded affirmatively. Some of their comments follow:

The case studies were like a magnifying lens in helping us to appreciate the credibility of the development theories we find in the text books. (Interview respondent 39)

It's very important that what we discuss in class is "real" and has real life implications. (Interview respondent 26).

All my courses do this semester and most did last semester, too. (Interview respondent 24)

Two students, however, responded neutrally, with one suggesting there was not much utilization of cases and the other objecting to the use of US-based case studies in the program.

When students were asked if class assignments included students' development of case studies, the responses were more mixed, although two-thirds affirmed this was true. Comments included:

The development of case studies in students' assignments was very useful in helping us to internalize and bring our work environment into the learning process. (Interview respondent 39)

I have had many occasions to do studies particularly geared towards the work I will be doing and the country I will be working in. This has been excellent. (Interview respondent 37).

Three students disagreed that they had developed case studies, and three were neutral. Two of the neutral responses were partially affirmative, in that they initially disagreed, but expanded upon their initial response by saying each had written only one case study as part of his/her class assignments.

When students were asked whether the cohort classroom model fosters group unity, encourages shared learning and enhances persistence to graduation, the response was strongly affirmative, with nineteen positive responses. Several affirmative student comments follow:

The cohort model fosters group unity, friendship and is a constant source of academic support. (Interview respondent 28A)

It has been good to be with a group and we have had a lot of opportunities to learn from one another. (Interview respondent 31A)

There were times last year when I was ready to quit and my colleagues encouraged me to continue. I tremendously value the cohort model. (Interview respondent 36A)

When students were asked to anticipate whether their three-month long international field semester would enhance their transition to an overseas development role, fifteen students agreed that this would be the case. Two students did not respond, and one disagreed. Student comments included:

It gives me a first hands-on experience and intercultural interaction. (Interview respondent 40A)

... definitely an integral step in getting us out there long-term. (Interview respondent 24A)

This will be my first long-term experience overseas. Thus, it will be my main source of experiential learning. (Interview respondent 28A)

Three neutral responses were received from overseas residency students for whom the field semester is not required. The only negative response was from a student long on experience abroad who “would just like to graduate and move on to employment” (Interview respondent 16A).

Students were asked how they planned to use what they had learned in the revised economic development program. They were unanimous in their desire to secure employment or full-time voluntary service in development. Sixteen different types of development work were identified in the interviews, with the greatest interest indicated for microenterprise, human rights work and education. Finally, all of the students planned to work outside of the United States, with Africa receiving the greatest interest, followed by Latin America, Asia and Europe, respectively.

In summary, the data suggested an affirmative response to the research question. Students found the revised program helpful and planned to use what they had learned.

5.2.3.2 Alumni assessment of program changes

Recent alumni (from 2003 through 2005) were asked to identify coursework that most helped them in the field of development. Fourteen distinct classes were mentioned, with economic development registering the greatest praise. Table 5.6 contains more details.

Table 5.6: Courses valued by recent economic development alumni as “most helpful” in the field

Source: Interviews

Economic development (3 votes)	Microfinance (1)
Community-based development (2)	Communications (1)
Biblical faith and economics (2)	Research (1)
Field semester experience (2)	Managerial accounting (1)
Political advocacy (2)	Social entrepreneurship (1)
Macroeconomics (1)	Christ in the city (1)
Microeconomics (1)	Grant writing (1)

Recent alumni were also asked to identify subjects that should have received more attention, and Table 5.7 reveals those findings.

Table 5.7: Topics identified by recent economic development alumni as inadequately covered in the curriculum

Source: Interviews

Grant-writing/fundraising (6 votes)	Appropriate technology (1)
Planning/evaluation (4)	Best practices (1)
Project management (4)	Specialized economic development courses (1)
Microfinance/microcredit (4)	Social entrepreneurship (1)
Finance (3)	General business practices (1)
Accounting (1)	Community organizing (1)
Research (1)	Vocation/spiritual giftedness (1)

What Table 5.6 does not reveal is that alumni had twice as much to say about what needed attention than they did about which courses were most helpful. Fourteen distinct topics were mentioned, with greatest emphasis on fundraising, microfinance, planning/evaluation and project management. Some of the alumni comments follow:

I have absolutely no idea about how to go about setting up a small microfinance program. (Interview respondent 57A)

We needed more on program development, management and evaluation. We needed to learn how to write grant proposals and manage the fundraising ends of NGOs. (Interview respondent 44A)

Additionally, several commented on the need for classes to be more practical, or better attuned to the contexts within which they would eventually practice. For example, two mentioned that the fundraising approaches taught in the classroom were too Western and unrelated to NGO realities in the field. Judging from their comments, it was clear that their field experiences tested their knowledge and clarified their strengths and weaknesses.

Recent alumni were asked if the field semester helped to facilitate their transition to overseas development work. Eleven alumni affirmed the value of the field semester. When removing five (overseas residency students) for whom the question was not applicable (as it is not a requirement for most of them), those affirming its value is more significant. The two students for whom the field experience was not positive either already had an abundance of experience in the developing world, or they experienced bad placements. Two other students identified that the three-month field semester was either too brief, or too crowded, with the workload created by the addition of distance-learning courses to the experience. Table 5.8 indicates where the field placements were located as well as their host organization types.

Table 5.8: Field internship locations and host organization types (classes of 2003–2005)

Source: Interviews; Stephenson, 2006

Field internship locations	Host organization types
Africa (13 alumni and students)	NGOs (24 alumni and students)
Asia (11)	Foundations (8)
Central/South America (9)	Businesses as mission (2)
Eastern Europe (3)	Churches (2)
United Nations (2)	Multi-lateral organizations (2)
Middle East (1)	

At the conclusion of the interviews, alumni and students were granted the opportunity to identify additional programmatic issues that had not been discussed in the interviews. Though a handful of helpful suggestions were offered, there was little crossover between issues that alumni raised and the concerns of current students. The student issues were primarily transactional in nature and had to do with improving student services in areas such as billing, financial aid and registration. Table 5.9 identifies issues raised by alumni for the benefit of the program's future students and includes their desire for the program:

Table 5.9: Recommendations for improvement offered by recent economic development alumni

Source: Interviews

Conduct faculty performance evaluations more consistently (Interview respondent 55)
Encourage faculty to introduce current issues into all courses (Interview respondent 56)
Faculty to do better at combining classroom and field realities (Interview respondent 47)
Provide more opportunities to find work abroad with NGOs (Interview respondent 42)
Facilitate contact among cohort alumni, faculty and resources (Interview respondent 52)
Lower program costs to help students avoid indebtedness (Interview respondent 51)

In summary, the data suggested an affirmative response to the research question. Students and alumni approved of the program changes, and students planned to use what they had learned. Having addressed perceptions of the revised program, the following section addresses the question whether alumni activity was consistent with the goals of the economic development program.

5.2.3.3 *Alumni activity and program goals*

The objective was to establish whether the plan succeeded through examining whether career outcomes of recent alumni reinforced program goals. Data generated for this purpose comprised on-line interviews with twenty-one alumni who have graduated since the 2002 intervention plan took effect.

The graduation expectations for graduates were for service on behalf of poor communities in the developing world. This point of view was expressed by several interview respondents, and there were no dissenting voices. While this had always been a program expectation, a senior administrator stated that it had broken down prior to the 2002 intervention:

And so I remember, we discovered about 70 percent of our international students were staying in North America. They were not returning ... We also discovered that a number of our international students were going underground. Some were arriving here and actually not even showing up in class. They were using our I-20 to get into the States and then were disappearing. Um, so we felt that, at least with our international students, we were only having a marginal effect in building capacity in the majority world. (Interview respondent 6A)

The study reaffirmed that the purpose of the relaunched economic development program was to build capacity in the developing world, as stated by a former program director:

For my first few years, everything was driven by that study. Everything was about making changes so our graduates would not remain here but return to their countries. (Interview respondent 1A)

Another former director agreed and identified the field semester as critical in assuring that programmatic outcome:

One of our larger goals was to get people to actually end up doing international economic development, which was the big push behind offering the field semester ... It defined us. It said, "This is what we are ... we are the place to go if you want to do international development". So it changed the make-up of the program. Now pretty much everyone who comes is

serious about going overseas and doing international development. (Interview respondent 5A)

When asked whether they were presently involved in development work as a vocation or avocation, fifteen of the twenty-one alumni responded affirmatively. A number participate in microfinance projects. Their work is in Afghanistan, China, Congo, El Salvador, Guatemala, India, Kenya, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Uganda, Venezuela and Zimbabwe.

Several alumni returned from their field placements to locate in the United States. They conduct development research with foundations, serve with urban development organizations, and one is in city government. Some alumni operate in multiple countries, and are posted at the United States headquarters of international development organizations, as this one indicates:

I work at the headquarters of a major relief and development organization. My work takes me to Africa's Great Lakes region, mostly Burundi and Democratic Republic of Congo. I also work with Sudan and Kenya programs. (Interview respondent 55A)

When asked what kind of work they are doing, the alumni responses varied. One started a US-based business to import goods and food from NGOs and artisan cooperatives in the developing world. Two are in language school preparing for placement within poor communities in China and elsewhere. One is addressing the HIV/AIDS pandemic in East Africa. Another is conducting an agricultural market research project in Kenya, commenting, "My research for them is how to help the Maasai communities that we work in to get a better value for their livestock" (Interview respondent 44A).

Two alumni work with grant-making organizations connecting donors with NGO development projects. One does rehabilitation/livelihood projects in post-conflict or post-disaster areas, and another works with refugees in the US. One is an on-line

educator in a related discipline, and reported “I create e-learning tools for sustainable microfinance programs” (Interview respondent 53A).

In summary, the alumni reported their work involves health, water, infrastructure, local church ministry, micro-enterprise, human rights advocacy, hunger, education, HIV/AIDS, agriculture, animal husbandry, research, rehabilitation, language study, business development services, organizational development, orphan care, refugee resettlement and grant making.

The data secured from alumni suggests an affirmative response to the research question. Recent alumni of the revised development program are involved in global development work and are implementing what they have learned in multiple capacities.

5.3 SUMMARY

The Eastern University intervention plan of 2002 for the MBA program in economic development was established with input gained from internal stakeholders, program alumni and NGO development leaders. Research was conducted to determine whether implementation had occurred as planned. Document analysis, interviews and focus groups were employed in order to answer the three research questions. A summary report on findings is found in Table 5.10 (on following page).

Of the three research questions asked, both one and three generated largely affirmative responses, while the second elicited mixed results. Interestingly, the economic development program has not thrived even though the plan was affirmed as sound and the educational outcomes were satisfactory. This suggests that the areas of failed execution (marketing, alumni relations and scholarship) may have been impediments to programmatic success. A contributing factor may have been the lack of a plan of evaluation, which emerged in conversation among the interviewees and focus group

Table 5.10: Summary report on findings

Sources: Documents, interviews and focus groups

	Research questions	Summary report on findings
ONE	Were the University's findings consistent with the components of the 2002 intervention plan?	The data indicated general consistency between findings and the components of the 2002 intervention plan. In other words, the intervention plan made sense in light of what the findings suggested ought to be done. The seventh intervention was the clearest exception, with little data available to back its proposed creation.
TWO	Have the program activities employed since 2002 matched those described in the 2002 intervention plan? If not, were the changes justified?	The data revealed mixed results in program execution. In other words, the first intervention failed, but changes to execution were justifiable. While the second through fourth were satisfactorily completed, the fifth, sixth and seventh interventions failed to be executed in accordance with the plan. In no instance were changes from the plan for the fifth through seventh justified.
THREE	Did the program outcomes match the expectations of the revised economic development program?	The majority of students and alumni found the revised program helpful and students planned to use what they had learned. Most recent alumni from the revised development program are involved in development work and are implementing what they have learned in varied capacities.

participants (see Appendix 7). These matters will be explored in the following chapter, where these research findings will be synthesized with the literature review from which will be derived the study's conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH SYNTHESIS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The economic development program at Eastern University was created in 1984 as one of the world's first faith-based MBA programs designed to train entrepreneurs for service to distressed communities located both in developing nations and in American cities. In its first decade, enrollments soared beyond the one hundred mark, and philanthropists enthusiastically funded programming activities.

However, severe challenges beset the economic development program in its second decade. It has been plagued with staffing turnovers, especially at the program director and recruiter positions. All of its original founding faculty have retired or departed. Program execution has been problematic. As a result, program enrollment diminished and less than half of those entering the program returned to their home countries to lead development organizations as intended.

In 2000, the Eastern University administration intervened. Gathering input from internal stakeholders, program alumni and NGO development leaders, the University in 2002 formulated an intervention plan. Five years into the economic development program's reinvention process, a qualitative research approach using document analysis and data collection through interviews and focus groups was conducted to determine whether all the essential elements of the project were in place and operating in accordance with the plans put forth in 2002.

This dissertation is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 described an overview of the proposed qualitative evaluation of an international graduate economic development program. Chapters 2 and 3 revealed the findings of a literature review surveying and critiquing existing scholarship relating to nongovernmental development organizations

(NGOs), their leaders' management needs, the challenges of addressing those needs, the variety (and adequacy) of existing leadership-oriented educational resources, the MBA as a response to the training needs of NGO leaders and a review of the MBA in economic development program at Eastern University. Chapter 4 addressed the research design and methodology. Chapter 5 articulated the three research questions following a review of data generation from the three primary data sources: document analysis, interviews and focus groups. The purpose of Chapter 6 is to synthesize the research, draw conclusions and offer recommendations.

6.2 RESEARCH SYNTHESIS

Global economic development for the sake of poverty alleviation is highly popular around the globe, as evidenced by celebrities adopting developing nations (Luscombe, 2006), religious leaders championing poverty issues (Van Biema, 2008) and the Nobel Prize committee's recent recognition of the world's "banker to the poor", Grameen Bank founder Muhammad Yunus (Lovgren, 2006). Because of advances in global communication technology, we are continuously awash in images of persistent poverty and global pandemic. As a result, institutions and governments are increasingly responsive to the needs of the poor nations (Shetty, 2005).

However, mounting evidence of the ineffective results of government-entrusted investments precipitated alternative placement of aid funds, which pressured NGOs to improve their own management practices (Edwards and Hulme, 1992) in order to attract investment. Fresh in-flows of vast amounts of charitable capital combined with donors' increasing expectations of performance sparked serious interest in the topics of efficiency, accountability and effectiveness within NGOs (Fowler, 1997). These topics are foundational to NGO mission accomplishment and have contributed to a global expansion of academic programs in NGO management. The examination of a forerunner of this educational movement, a 25-year-old MBA in economic development, helped address the void of scholarship concerning the effectiveness of NGO-related academic programs.

The focus of the Eastern University MBA in economic development is on strengthening the effectiveness of development-oriented NGOs through building management capacity, which “is the lifeblood of all organizations, irrespective of whether they are private entities, public agencies, not-for-profit concerns or non-governmental varieties” (James, 1998:229). The following summary statements identify key findings from the review of NGO-related scholarship:

- the need for NGO management education is both critical and timely;
- the competencies required for NGO leadership have been identified;
- excessive complexity challenges responses to NGO leadership education;
- global MBAs possess flexible curriculums and are increasingly accessible, but they have their shortcomings;
- global economic development education is available at many universities, but less so where the need is greatest; and
- scholarship has not yet addressed the effectiveness of university-based management-training degree programs for NGO leaders.

A qualitative study of an established international graduate economic development program for NGO leaders provided a framework for assessing the effectiveness of similarly themed programs serving the NGO community (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:124) and offered suggestions on related curricular issues. The new knowledge generated by this study strengthens the institutions that develop programs serving the NGO community and extends the abilities of NGO leaders to fulfill their missions. The research outcomes are summarized in the following sub-section.

6.2.1. Research outcomes

Eastern University’s intervention plan of 2002 for the MBA program in economic development, which was established with input gained from internal stakeholders, program alumni and NGO development leaders, formulated the following path of action (previously reported at 1.2.1 through 1.2.7).

- The program would be separated into two distinct degrees: International Economic Development and Urban Economic Development, which would be delivered in distinct contexts by distinct faculties. Additionally, the programs would be staffed by distinct administrators, with the international economic development program being located in the School for Leadership and Development (SLD) and the urban economic development program being located in the School for Social Change.
- The international economic development program would continue to be offered on campus, but would be augmented by the addition of an overseas-based distance version with limited residencies offered in partnership with indigenous organizations.
- The position of the director of the international development program, having been recently vacated, would be reconfigured to satisfy new program realities and needs to be filled as soon as possible.
- The faculty would conduct a formal and thorough review of the curriculum in light of changing issues in international development, to ensure the:
 - a) availability of updated syllabi;
 - b) utilization of updated and relevant texts;
 - c) inclusion of case-study methodology in teaching; and
 - d) development of case studies as part of the program assignments.
- A concentrated marketing effort would be executed for the start-up initiative, made possible by increased budgetary resources for marketing during fiscal 2002 to prepare for a new program launch in fiscal 2003.
- A coordinator would be assigned to establish an international alumni network, a formal network of alumni on each continent that would serve as the voluntary recruitment staff for all SLD programs, regarding economic development.

- SLD would establish the Institute for the Advancement of Development as a vehicle for creating knowledge and collecting research on best practices in development.

Research was conducted to determine whether implementation occurred as planned. Document analysis, interviews and focus groups were employed in order to answer the three research questions. A summary report on findings was reported in Table 5.9. Of the three research questions asked, both one and three generated affirmative responses, while the second proved to elicit mixed results. Interestingly, the economic development program has not thrived even though the plan was affirmed as sound and the educational outcomes satisfactory. This suggested that the areas of failure (marketing, alumni relations and scholarship) might have been impediments to programmatic success. This is further explored in Section 6.3, where these research outcomes are synthesized with the literature review from which the conclusions and recommendations of the study are derived.

6.2.2 Research design and methodology

The purpose of this study was to contribute to understanding on the implementation of an NGO-focused international MBA program by developing a framework for implementing and evaluating NGO academic programs. Additionally, existing NGO management knowledge was enriched by developing a greater understanding of curricular issues surrounding NGO leadership-focused, development programming. The methods chosen for this study were appropriate to its research objectives.

Qualitative research is well suited to assess the conceptualization, design, implementation and utility of social interventions and programs (Denscombe, 2002). An interpretivist approach can reveal the nuanced differences between ineffective programs or potentially good programs compromised by faulty implementation (De Vos, 1998). Because it relies on field-based research gathered in a rigorous, systematic fashion, this approach succeeds at answering the question of whether a program has been properly implemented, whether

the target group has been adequately covered and whether any interventions have been implemented as designed (Mouton, 2001), categories within which the three research questions reside.

The researcher collected qualitative data to determine the success of the implementation of a program intervention. Documentary analysis established whether there was consistency between a committee's findings and the university's planned interventions. Interviews and focus groups generated data that indicated whether the plan had been implemented as designed and whether the outcomes were aligned with programmatic objectives. The utilization of these mixed methods provided multiple viewpoints from which the researcher triangulated results, which bolstered the strength of the study.

The findings from document analysis, interviews and focus groups were presented in both tabular and narrative formats. Key components, or the most significant categories, that emerged from the data analysis process were identified, and tables were used to identify in which documents they were referenced. Brief narrative segments that reinforced the findings were lifted verbatim from documents and inserted in the report to illustrate and substantiate the analysis.

Even when the greatest possible care is employed, research has its limitations. The next section explores those related to qualitative research in general and this study in particular.

6.2.3 Limitations of this research

Qualitative research approaches tend to go deep with smaller data samples in order to generate the "thick description" (Geertz, 1973) that characterizes this approach. The data may therefore be less representative, there is a possibility of decontextualizing the meaning and there is a danger of oversimplifying the explanation of the findings. Because of its orientation to the particular, the generalization of findings is de-emphasized as a critical success factor in qualitative research. While generalizability is

not the primary aim of qualitative research, “working hypotheses” may be generated and found to be transferable among increasingly congruent programs, a concept Lincoln and Guba refer to as “fittingness” (1985:124).

There are always factors that are unique to the locale or series of events that make it useless to try to generalize therefrom ... For ‘when we give proper weight to local conditions, any generalization is a working hypothesis, not a conclusion’ (Cronbach in Lincoln and Guba, 1985:124).

There exists increased scholarly interest in and activity by senior executives undertaking doctoral research within their own organizations as their findings can generate significant value for both the academic and practitioner communities (Adler and Shani, 2001). While being a senior leader within the organization under study affords its benefits, however, it also poses potential drawbacks. Coghlan (2007) categorized the following observations of these potential traits of insider research as follows:

Table 6.1: Insider research categories along with potential benefits and drawbacks
Source: Coghlan, 2007

Category	Potential Benefits	Potential Drawbacks
Pre-understanding	Knowledge and insights are based on both theory and experience; folkways are familiar; understanding of informal jargon, organization and ways of accomplishing tasks	May fail to probe into the unfamiliar; may presume to know the answers and fail to consider alternate paths; difficulty in crossing boundaries, which impacts data gathering
Role duality	Ease of access to relationships; location of and full participation in organizational conversations	Loyalties and role conflicts; multiple, potentially conflicting roles can confuse relationships
Managing organizational politics	Fosters courage as it enhances organizational listening, questioning, reflection and democratic participation	May be considered subversive; may imbalance in the political system and strain relationships within the organization

Also proposed were strategies for assuring the value of the research for actionable knowledge including: (1) the orientation of research participants to the philosophy of action research, (2) the presentation of regular progress reports to research participants that report on both reflection and action, and (3) the engagement of a third person perspective on the research process and project (Coughlan, 2007). In this research project, (1) all participants were briefed concerning the project and fully assured of complete confidentiality throughout the research process (Appendix 1); (2) regular progress reports were provided to both executive and program administrators; and (3) a qualitative research methodology expert from another university was granted full access to review research process and progress.

Because the researcher and the study participants shared a personal connection to the economic development program at Eastern University MBA, the interpretation may wrapped up with the self of the researcher. The researcher addressed this potentiality by triangulating research findings from multiple perspectives and maintaining a detailed diary to permit review (and possible duplication) of the research activities of this study by others.

Limitations also relate to the data gathering and include the possibility of lost, irretrievable or incomprehensible documents. This study was challenged when a number of secured documents revealed no clear authorship or dates. Dates were established as often as possible through cross-referencing and direct engagement of the documents' authors. However, in cases where a date remained elusive, documents were rendered of little value except as secondary resources.

Other limitations relate to the research subjects themselves and include the possibility of memory loss among subjects and the potential unwillingness of subjects to offer candid participation. However, all subjects who had been asked, freely volunteered to participate in the research, while memory loss or reluctance to share candidly, if present, was surmounted through engaging multiple participants' points of view concerning

shared experiences. In the following section, conclusions are drawn and recommendations are offered.

6.3 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this section is to draw conclusions from the research findings and to identify recommendations. The section is organized into four categories: theoretical conclusions, policy conclusions, practical conclusions and recommendations.

6.3.1 Theoretical conclusions

The following conclusions have theoretical implications for institutions of higher education.

The *first theoretical conclusion* addresses a justification of a MBA-level educational program for NGO leaders (see Sections 1.2; 3.2; 3.3; 5.2.3). Since the mid-1980s, the last quarter century has been witness to a rapid rise in scholarship on the NGO sector (Lewis, 2001). Though most of that scholarship has been regionalized and focused on NGO problems and challenges, it has also served to sharpen the world's focus on the significant role played by these intermediary organizations that manage massive amounts of capital on behalf of the world's most vulnerable citizens. The rising tide of scholarship reached an apex of sorts when mainstream management scholars, such as Drucker (2006) and Collins (2005), dedicated their pens to the cause. Having been duly elevated, institutions of higher learning began to serve social service sector organizations (which include NGOs), with known graduate programs tailored to NGOs presently exceeding one hundred worldwide (Mirabella, 2007).

Much of the knowledge required for leadership of organizations, whether they are for-profit or social sector organizations, is common and can be found in most well-conceived MBA programs. Since in many countries of the world, NGOs rival some of the larger corporate entities, their leaders will benefit from coursework that enables them to direct

complex nonprofit “businesses”. However, given that standard MBAs exist to serve for-profit businesses and their faculties are appropriately experienced in the for-profit world, the differences between business enterprises and social sector organizations are significant enough to merit an MBA with a focus on preparing leaders for NGOs (Hutchinson and Quartaro, 1995).

A faculty whose scholarship, training and experience lie solely in for-profit business will be limited in their ability to apply learning to the context and needs of NGO leaders. NGOs differ from for-profit businesses, mostly in matters of financial and human capital (Collins, 2005). NGO revenue streams emanate primarily from philanthropic sources, government ministries and highly subsidized fees for services. The concepts of profit, shareholder value, market share and quarterly investor reports are foreign to most NGOs. Much of the human capital NGOs rely upon to deliver services is voluntary in nature (Anheier and Salamon, 1998). Most grassroots NGO leaders are micro-oriented, needing to understand how best to scale down services versus the alternative view characterizing most for-profit enterprises. This requires a different perspective on enterprise, finance and accounting than commonly found in standard MBA curricula. The work of NGO leaders among the poor masses raises suspicions of many governments, which dictates that an MBA for NGO leaders also be politically and legally informed in a way different from what one would expect from a standard MBA (Anheier and Salamon, 1998).

The growing popularity of MBA programs for NGO leaders, and the growth of enrollments worldwide also justify the existence of these programs. The fact that these programs are generously enrolled as they come on line suggests they are satisfying a market niche (Mirabella, 2007). Additionally, the advent of NGO-focused programs in some of the world’s finest business schools, such as Thunderbird and Dartmouth, adds credence to the legitimacy of such programs.

Perhaps more so than growing current student enrollments, appropriate alumni activity in the NGO sector further cements the position of these programs for years to come. In the program evaluated for this study, most alumni were serving in development NGOs and

felt well qualified for service by their MBA studies. It can therefore be concluded that suitably focused MBA degrees can appropriately advance the interests of existing and aspiring NGO leaders.

The *second theoretical conclusion* proposes a framework for the implementation and evaluation of an international graduate economic development MBA for NGO leaders. The qualitative research approach, when applied to an international MBA program for NGO leaders, derived constructive conclusions for both the local research subject and global institutional programs sharing congruent elements. The qualitative evaluation employed in this study incorporated a multi-step process, which included a definition of research focus, data collection, interpretation of findings, and a report on conclusions.

A program theory described how and why certain activities were expected to lead to a set of predictable outcomes and impacts (Russon and Reinelt, 2004). In this theoretical framework, the program theory combined many factors, including descriptions and explanations that emerged from a synthesis of the research, and assumed a potentially prescriptive form (Chen, 2004).

Theoretical frameworks are especially helpful tools for scholars who desire to simplify complex systems or those who study isolated aspects of program operations more carefully (Dickmeyer in Bailey and Littlechild, 2001). When deployed in qualitative evaluations, theoretical frameworks “enhance the validity of conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the program” (Sidani and Sechrest, 1999:236). Anderson (1999:75) summarizes the key contributions of theoretical frameworks as:

- identifying the categories of information affecting the program;
- organizing the information that has been gathered;
- highlighting relationships among the categories;
- anticipating outcomes of programming decisions; and
- facilitating an impact-oriented assessment of alternatives.

Included in the report of conclusions is a theoretical framework for implementation and evaluation that will provide value to development programs with similar goals and objectives at other universities. The design of the theoretical framework for implementation and evaluation of an international MBA in economic development took seriously the following four core components: the research problem, program inputs, program outputs, and program outcomes. It also considered outside influences, such as assumptions and external factors (Taylor-Powell, Steele and Douglass, 1996). The theoretical framework for implementation and evaluation of an international MBA in economic development can be found in Figure 6.1, located on the following page.

It is important to begin a theoretical framework with a statement of the presenting *problem*. Clarity and precision in doing so will aid in program design and identifying the target market (Sidani and Sechrest, 1999:229). In the case of an international MBA in economic development for NGO leaders, the highlighted elements of the presenting problem were discussed in the literature review and include:

- escalating global poverty and the roles and activities of NGOs (see Sections 2.2; 2.3);
- NGO realities and the limitations of their leadership capacity (see Sections 2.4; 2.5); and
- the challenges of lacking scholarship and educational access for NGO leaders (see Sections 2.6; 2.7).

Also included in a situational analysis is the responsiveness of many academic institutions, which bring their missions, resources, strategies and intended outcomes to the presenting problem (see Sections 2.7; 3.2; 3.3). The problem and academic response in the framework inform program inputs.

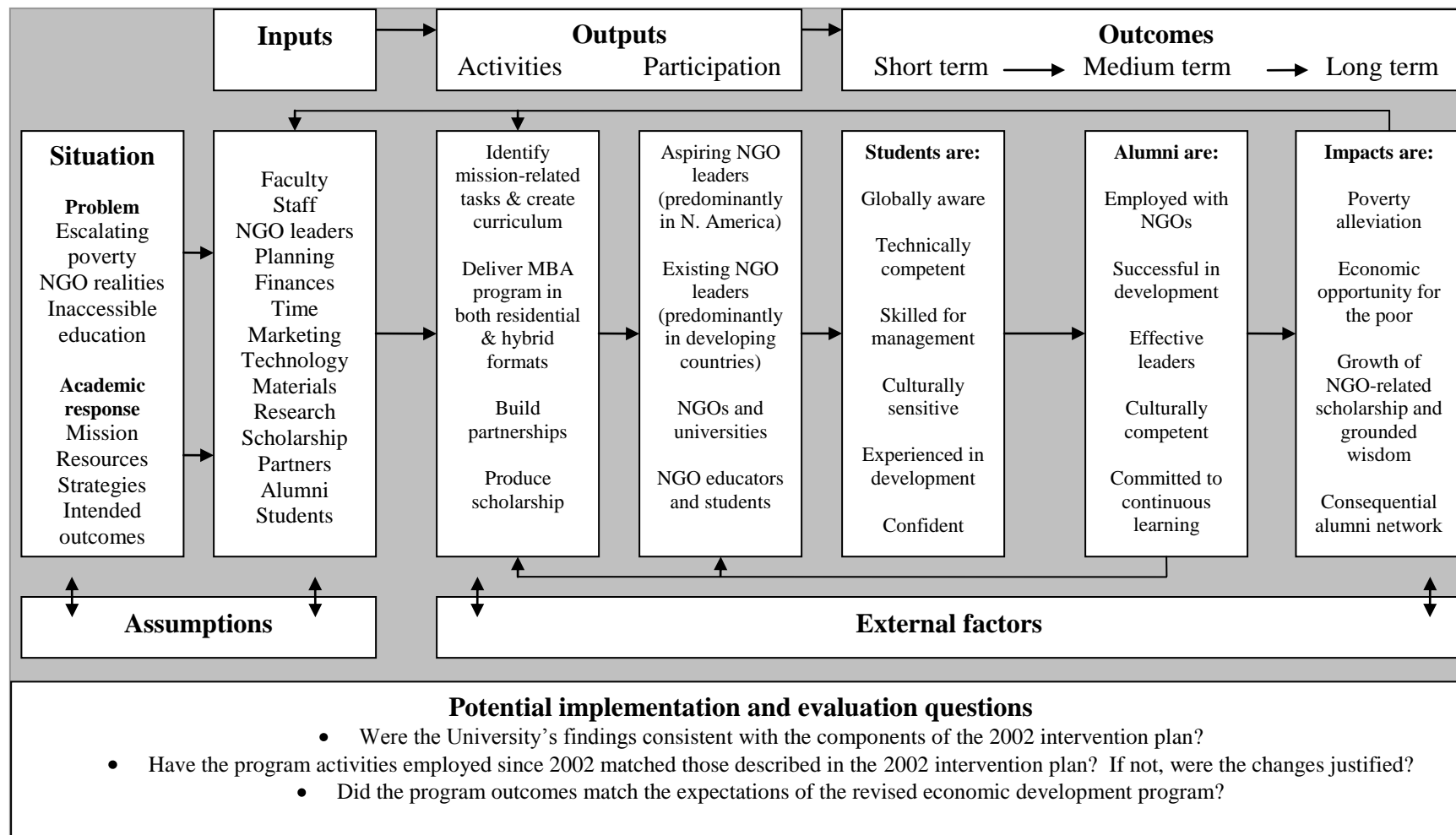


Figure 6.1: Theoretical framework for implementation and evaluation of an international MBA in economic development

The inputs in the theoretical framework for an international MBA in economic development for NGO leaders include those parties and resources that contribute to program conception and implementation (see Sections 1.3; 3.3). Faculty conceive the program with contributions from NGO leaders, potential institutional partners, current students and former alumni (see Sections 4.4.1.1; 5.2.1.2). Faculty implement the program with assistance from staff and through the deployment of critical resources, such as planning, finances, time, marketing, technology, materials and research (see Section 5.2.2). The program inputs impact the program outputs in the theoretical framework.

Program outputs are divided into two sub-sections, activities and participation. Activity outputs derive directly from the creative intersection among sources of input and include:

- (a) the identification of mission-related tasks of NGO leaders and the creation of a curriculum that included the appropriate knowledge, skills and abilities for job success (see Tables 2.11; 3.1);
- (b) the delivery of the academic program in ways ensuring access to the target population(s) (see Table 2.10; Sections 2.7.2; 3.2.2; 3.2.5);
- (c) the investment in NGO partnerships that ensured relevance and enhanced reach (see Sections 3.2.3; 5.2.1.2; 5.2.2.2); and
- (d) the production of scholarship to further ground the discipline (see Sections 1.2; 1.1.2; 1.2.7; 2.7; 3.1).

The activity outputs define the participation outputs, or the target population(s). Consequently, the program would be well enrolled with –

- (a) aspiring (predominantly expatriate) NGO leaders; and
- (b) existing (predominantly indigenous) NGO leaders (see Sections 2.6; 3.3.4; 5.2.1.5; 5.2.2.5).

It would also have built partnerships with –

- (c) NGO and higher education institutions (see Sections 5.2.1.2; 5.2.2.2), and produce scholarship for
- (d) NGO educators and students (see Sections 5.2.1.7; 5.2.2.7).

The outputs, both activity and participant, inform the short, medium and long-term outcomes of the program.

Outcomes are the fruit of program outputs and represent short-, medium- and long-term evidence of change attributable to program activities. *Short-term outcomes* focus on changes in students' knowledge, skills, abilities or level of functioning" (Kleiman and Kass, 2007). *Medium-term outcomes* look for similar behavioral and attitudinal change among alumni. *Long-term outcomes* reflect social developments that the program aimed to produce (Russon and Reinelt, 2004). Kirkpatrick's classic four levels of evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1994) provide somewhat of a summary for evaluating program outcomes. Initially, students react to their learning, and secondly they learn. Thirdly, transfer follows learning, as students begin to integrate the learning into their daily existence. The fourth and final level of evaluation is results, or whatever the program determined to be its ultimate objectives.

The *short-term outcomes* of an international MBA in economic development program for NGO leaders would be exhibited in participant reactions at the end of the program (Dixon in Bailey and Littlechild, 2001). Upon graduation, students from this program would be globally aware, culturally sensitive and experienced in development, which would argue for a variety of learning experiences including classroom and field-based learning (Smith and Forbes, 2001). Such students would be technically competent and skilled for management (Kleiman and Kass, 2007). Finally, the possession of the required skills, when blended with experiences that develop cross-cultural awareness, would create the confidence required for effective leadership (Chang, 2005). The short-term outcomes that students exhibit (see also Section 5.2.3.1) would affect the medium-term outcomes demonstrated by program graduates, or alumni.

The *medium-term outcomes* of an international MBA in economic development program for NGO leaders would translate into changes in participants' application of knowledge, their job performance and their impact on the organizations with which they serve (Dixon in Bailey and Littlechild, 2001). Alumni would be employed in the social services sector and would experience success in practicing development (see Sections 5.2.3.2; 5.2.3.3). They would evince cultural competence in their roles as effective leaders committed to continuous learning (Chang,

2005). They would also feed back their experiential learning and mastery to strengthen program activities and extend the reach of the program's market through referring participants from their relational networks (see Sections 5.2.1.6; 5.2.2.6). The medium-term outcomes that alumni exhibit affect the long-term outcomes as demonstrated by societal impacts.

The *long-term outcomes* of an international MBA in economic development program for NGO leaders would translate into social changes that the program seeks to effect (Russon and Reinelt, 2004). Effective alumni will lead NGOs that succeed at alleviating poverty and incubating economic opportunities for the poor (see Section 5.2.2.2). As reflective practitioners, they will contribute to NGO-related scholarship even as they share grounded wisdom among themselves through informal networking and professional gatherings (see Section 5.2.2.4). Their consequential service as alumni will distinguish the program from which they graduated, as will the feedback loop that forms when some of them return to the program as teaching faculty.

A few words on the role of influences on the aforementioned categories are in order. The initial academic response to the presenting problem as well as the program inputs are inevitably influenced by assumptions and other internal factors. An institution's mission and worldview influence its operating assumptions, which define the shape of its outputs, which in turn determine the nature of the outcomes of any given program (see Sections 3.2.3; 3.2.4). Internal factors also greatly influence effectiveness in content and delivery. The stability of proven leadership is of supreme importance, as is an institutional commitment to the program (see Section 5.2.1.3; 5.2.2.3). The latter is demonstrated through adequately resourced multiple-year plans and a commitment to annual evaluation. Additionally, a stable, mission-oriented staff is critical to the effectiveness of global programs serving cultures that place a premium on relational trust.

A strong influence on outputs and outcomes emanates from factors external to the program. The external factors affecting an international MBA in economic development program for NGO leaders include global influences, such as politics and economics (see Section 2.4). External factors also include understanding global conflicts, humanitarian crises, pandemics and other knowledge that NGO leaders require for success at the grassroots (see Section 2.3). It is

reasonable to expect that program curricula reflect and communicate a full appreciation for the external factors that shape the audiences and situations that NGOs encounter. The same holds true for program delivery. Because of the characteristics of NGO leaders (the program's target audience), curricula should be highly contextualized, accessible and affordable (see Sections 2.7.2; 3.2.3; 3.2.5). It is therefore concluded that the qualitative research approach, when applied to an international MBA program for NGO leaders, provides a framework for the implementation and evaluation of MBAs and similar graduate programs for NGO leaders.

As a final note, the theoretical framework for implementation and evaluation of an international MBA in economic development does possess potentialities for application to other similar programs. While the primary purpose of a particular qualitative research project is not typically generalisation, its discovery process may generate value for programs that share congruent elements (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Consequently, the theoretical framework can also provide value for either non-NGO MBA or non-MBA NGO graduate programs. As a general Logic Model designed specifically for program planning based on variables that are common to similar programs, graduate faculty and program directors can use this template to help plan or evaluate both non-NGO MBA or non-MBA NGO programs.

6.3.2 Policy conclusions

The following conclusions have policy implications for institutions of higher education.

The *first policy conclusion* addresses the importance of faculty leadership for academic programs. Leaders exercise tremendous influence on their programs and institutions. A graduate development program should be directed by a member of the faculty. For years, the economic development program was directed by administrative staff who were ill equipped at crafting curricula (see 6.3.2.2) or championing their program in academic and departmental settings. It is therefore concluded that in academic environments, faculty status contributes toward the effectiveness of program directors, particularly in matters of curricular development, credibility and collegial acceptance (see Sections 1.3; 2.7.1; 5.2.1.3; 5.2.2.3).

The *second policy conclusion* addresses the consequences of constant curricular change. Frequent change in the program's leadership leads to constant curricular change, which adds both complexity and cost to a program while simultaneously enhancing attrition. The pattern of frequent curricular change created impediments to progress for students, complicated the faculty advising process and added expense to program execution. It is therefore concluded that a graduate development program should be subjected to a carefully conceived approach to curricular revision that discourages annual change in favor of a substantive multi-year review process (see Sections 5.2.1.4; 5.2.2.4).

The *third policy conclusion* addresses the requirement of academic program and evaluation plans. Well-conceived and articulated program plans, including mission-driven, annual benchmarks for evaluation, should be required of all graduate development programs. An effective program plan must be reliably executed and regularly revisited. A consistent finding in the three failed areas of execution (marketing, alumni relations and scholarship production) was the lack of an articulated program and evaluation plan. Organizations pay a price for failing to execute activities identified as critical success factors. It is therefore concluded that the lack of a precise evaluation plan diminishes the prospects for productive results (see Sections 5.2.1.5; 5.2.1.7; 5.2.2.5; 5.2.2.7).

6.3.3 Practical conclusions

The following conclusions have practical implications for institutions of higher education.

The *first practical conclusion* addresses the significance of stability in the context of relationally based markets. In a hierarchical culture, a leadership vacuum severely compromises execution and contributes to staff turnover and instability. The frequent turnover in the position of the director of the economic development program created a perception of it being a troubled program in the eyes of its greatest potential advocates and influencers, its globe-spanning alumni. Additionally, the failure to replace the alumni contact person added "impersonality" to

that perception and effectively silenced the alumni, who might have been the program's greatest voice had they been embraced and engaged. It is therefore concluded that frequent staff turnover is severely disruptive and relationally fractious, and in a graduate international development program, programmatic instability compromises relationship-based marketing efforts (see Sections 1.3; 3.2.3; 5.2.1.3; 5.2.1.6; 5.2.2.3; 5.2.2.6).

The *second practical conclusion* addresses the value of planning and resourcing marketing efforts. A graduate development program leaves marketing to chance at its own peril. Planning for marketing the economic development program was demonstrated to be ad hoc and driven by the urgency of the moment. This is especially disadvantageous in the case of a program that relies on international recruitment with its long lead times required for admission, financial and immigration approvals. On those few occasions where the economic development program put forth marketing strategies, the funds proved lacking. The lack of adequate marketing resources will hinder the successful execution of marketing activities. Sound marketing plans, however, generally beget financial resources. Successful and well-prepared alumni represent a rich yet underutilized marketing resource. When the economic development program ignored this valuable resource, enrollments responded in predictable fashion. It is therefore concluded that the lack of a marketing plan will dilute and render ineffective most marketing activities, and that at the heart of any marketing plan for a global program with supportive, distinguished graduates in fifty countries should be its alumni (see Sections 5.2.1.5; 5.2.1.6; 5.2.2.5; 5.2.2.6).

The *third practical conclusion* addresses the necessity of achieving and teaching cross-cultural competency. A graduate development program excels as the divide between classroom and context is narrowed. This includes curricular commitments to merging (macro) understanding of development with the (micro) skills required for execution at the grassroots; the utilization of texts representative of multiple cultures and viewpoints; and the appointment of faculty possessing a mixture of scholarship, appropriate experience and cultural diversity. The economic development program responded admirably to inputs from NGO leaders who insisted on the essential value of experiential learning through cross-cultural engagement. The resulting field semester was well received by students and well appreciated by alumni. It is therefore concluded that cross-cultural competency is essential for the aspiring NGO leaders, which means

the necessity of texts and instructors reflecting the Global South along with the importance of field-based learning over a period of at least three months (see Sections 5.2.1.2; 5.2.2.2; 5.2.3.1; 5.2.3.2).

The *fourth practical conclusion* addresses the importance of extending accessibility to NGO leaders in the developing world and ensuring relevance through non-traditional delivery options. Prior to the intervention, the economic development program contributed to the failure to return 70% of its international NGO student leaders to the field upon graduation by insisting they relocate to the United States of America for several years of graduate study. This removed them from the field where their service was required and acculturated them to the United States of America, which proved difficult to leave. The development of a distance-based program with three-week residencies that take place in the developing world proved to be an attractive solution to that challenge. Application-based learning anchored in the developing world helps experienced NGO leaders learn by integrating classroom and context. It is therefore concluded that program delivery that includes an interactive, cohort-based, portable learning community option will retain program quality while ensuring accessibility for adult NGO leaders who are severely challenged by the requirements of their multiple roles (see Sections 2.7.2; 3.2.2; 3.3.3; 5.2.1.2; 5.2.2.2).

6.3.4 Recommendations

Based on these research conclusions, the following recommendations are made.

The *first recommendation* is that the academic administration of a graduate development program should establish a multi-year, disciplined commitment to planning and evaluation. Accountability would be assured by reviewing evaluation results with key influencers (such as alumni and NGO leaders) and academic administration on a regular basis.

The *second recommendation* is that the academic administration of a graduate development program should carefully select, invest in, and retain the right leader possessing faculty status, and provide the necessary support to ensure a long, productive tenure. Simultaneously academic

administration should construct a succession plan for key positions in order to begin to develop aspirant program leaders who will help ensure smooth future transitions and diminish relational fractiousness.

The *third recommendation* is that the academic administration of a graduate development program should create, resource and implement a relationship-based marketing plan that takes full advantage of global networking opportunities (such as alumni and potential NGO partners) while constructing an institutional culture that prides itself in funding its plans and fulfilling its marketing promises.

The *fourth recommendation* is that the academic administration of a graduate development program should excel at bridging the cultural and economic realities that frustrate the development of NGO leaders. Because of the distinct nature of social service sector organizations and their leaders, this will require alternative approaches to highly desirable, classic curricular programs (such as MBAs) as well as innovative efforts at program delivery.

6.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

Suggestions for future investigation emanate from research conclusions and comprise the following questions.

- ☐ What is the impact of staff turnover on educational organizations and programs, and which measures can be taken to ensure the right people are selected and retained?
- ☐ How does the strength and sustainability of those organizations with marketing plans compare with those which lack the same?
- ☐ What are generally accepted best practices for measuring the productive behavior of leaders in nonprofit organizations?
- ☐ What are the critical determining factors in successfully getting NGO leaders to develop the discipline of planning and evaluation?
- ☐ What are the assessment practices of the more than one hundred global graduate degrees who serve NGO leaders?

Having synthesized the literature review with research findings into theoretical, policy and practical conclusions and made recommendations, this chapter is summarized in the following section.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The current study set out to address a gap in academic scholarship concerning the training needs of NGO leaders and the effectiveness of international graduate development programs in addressing such needs. The following specific aims were established and achieved.

Firstly, a general analysis of the factors contributing to the management challenges facing the leaders of international nongovernmental development organizations was presented. This included an assessment that MBA programs can adequately serve the interests of NGO leaders provided they make the necessary curricular and faculty adjustments to address the critical aspects that differentiate social sector from for-profit organizations.

Secondly, a qualitative evaluation of an international graduate economic development program for NGO leaders was conducted to assess its effectiveness in achieving planned objectives. The conclusions of this study had value for the research subject, but also formulated working hypotheses potentially applicable to other universities' programs. The resulting creation of a framework for the implementation and evaluation of an international graduate economic development program for NGO leaders addresses a void in scholarship and has the potential to assist global faculty and directors of NGO management training programs in evaluating similar programs. This framework has already informed the creative process for a proposed graduate program in development studies in Rwanda, and is under consideration by program directors in India, Australia and China.

Thirdly, the research also generated conclusions and recommendations on theoretical, practical and policy-related issues, particularly regarding matters of academic program leadership,

curricular development, planning, evaluation, marketing and the distinctive requirements of international programs containing distance delivery components.

Fourthly, the research enriched the scholarly conversation in the NGO and academic communities in several substantive ways. A paper entitled “Globalizing Christian Education in Economic Development: Problems and Prospects in Designing and Delivering a US Graduate Program for the Developing World” was presented at an international symposium of 130 educators from 35 nations gathered in Nicaragua by the International Association for the Promotion of Christian Higher Education (Ridington and LeQuire, 2006). A paper entitled “Insights from an Evaluation of a Graduate Development Management Program” was presented at the Transformational Development Conference, which was attended by 175 international development practitioners and educators gathered in the US by the INGO, Food for the Hungry (Ridington, 2009). Additionally, an article entitled “Eastern University’s MBA in Economic Development: Insights for Development Management Programs” was published in a peer-reviewed journal (Ridington and Kapp, 2009).

In summary, the critically important task of preparing NGO leaders for service in the developing world proceeds somewhat perilously due to the lack of scholarship on the effectiveness of NGO management and leadership preparation programs. Effective NGO leadership education programs and a body of NGO management knowledge should be created to guide the accelerating opportunities and expectations inherent in that sector. The knowledge generated by this study will strengthen the institutions that develop programs serving the NGO community and extend the abilities of NGO leaders to fulfill their missions.

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APPENDIX 1

AN EVALUATION OF AN INTERNATIONAL GRADUATE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Consent Form

Investigator's Name: M. Thomas Ridington
Department: Center for Higher and Adult Education, Curriculum Studies
Email: tridingt@eastern.edu
Telephone: (610) 341-4377 (o) (610) 937-7816 (c)

Co-Promoter: Prof. Chris Kapp
Department: Faculty of Education, Stellenbosch University
Email: kapp@sun.ac.za

I am currently engaged in a study of a distinctive graduate program in international economic development and the effectiveness of its curricular revision plan several years into its implementation. To help me gain further insights into this area I will ask you to participate in an interview lasting approximately 60-90 minutes. The interview will be scheduled at a time and location that is convenient to you. A follow up interview of 30-45 minutes may also be scheduled at a time and location that is convenient to you.

The data you will provide will be recorded anonymously and your participation and anything you say during the session will be held in the strictest confidence. Following this interview, all responses will be transcribed and coded for data analysis. Any information obtained during this interview that might identify a participant will be kept strictly confidential.

I welcome questions about this study at any time. Your participation in this study is on a voluntary basis, and you may refuse to participate at any time without consequence or prejudice.

I understand that if I wish further information regarding my rights as a research subject, I may contact: Prof. Chris Kapp, Center for Higher and Adult Education, Stellenbosch University, Private Bag X1, Matieland, 7602, South Africa.

Signing your name below indicates that you have read and understand the contents of this Consent Form and that you agree to take part in this study.

_____ Participant's Signature	_____ Date
_____ Investigator's Signature	_____ Date

APPENDIX 2

Document Analysis – Cover Sheet

Document Title: _____ Date: _____

Who composed the document? _____

Why was it written?

What methods were used to acquire the information contained in the document?

What biases are in the document? _____

How inclusive is the sample in the document? _____

What were the institutional constraints or organizational routines under which it was prepared?

Is the document more an index of activity or an analysis of a phenomenon?

What time lapse exists between observation and documentation? _____

How confidential or public was the document to be? _____

What role did etiquette, convention or custom play in the presentation of the material contained in the document? _____

If you relied solely on the evidence contained in this document, how might your vision of the past be distorted?

What other kinds of documents might you look at for evidence on the same issues?

What are the key categories and concepts used by the writer of the document to organize the information presented?

What selectivities or silences result from these categories of thought?

What sort of theoretical issues and debates to these documents cast light on?

What kinds of historical and/or sociological questions do they help to answer?

What sorts of valid inferences can one make from the information contained in these documents?

What sorts of generalizations can one make on the basis of the information contained in these documents?

Other observations? Or disconnects with other information sources?

APPENDIX 3

Archival sources: Pre-intervention phase (these documents provide information concerning economic development program conditions prior to the intervention of the administration in 2000-2002)

Inclusion criteria: Documents were selected for review based upon their potential for presenting relevant evidence related to one of three developmental program phases under review in this study: pre-intervention, intervention, post-intervention.

Adisu, M. and Barnes, I. 1991. The Eastern College economic development program: a graduate student survey. May 1991. Unpublished report.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: Information secured from this document, a graduate student project, included student perceptions of the quality of the economic development program during its first decade.

Advisor course planning notebook. 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document contained information germane to course counseling with students including curricular changes and student-by-student tracking matrices.

Bromley, G. and Carlson, R. 1990. Survey of the attitudes of alumni of the graduate program in economic development at Eastern College. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. Unpublished report.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document, a graduate student project, included alumni feedback on the economic development from its very earliest alumni.

Campus program: budget projection. 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: Budget projection formed for a campus economic development program from planning phase documentation.

Curriculum planning, MBA/MS economic development programs. 1996. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by economic development faculty
Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention
Information found: This document provides information on outcomes-oriented, faculty-generated curricular planning for the economic development program

Distance education focus group reports, 1998. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; conducted by program faculty with the final report compiled by the assistant dean
Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention
Information found: This research study sought input from various international students and groups to solicit input on how the economic development program might be delivered in countries outside the United States.

Eastern College and Cornerstone Christian College Partnership Agreement. 1999. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by B. Birmingham
Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention
Information found: This document contained strategy and operational information concerning the attempt to establish the overseas program through international partnerships

Eastern College MBA/MS in Economic Development: Required Curriculum. 1998. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; curricular planner for students
Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention
Information found: This handout contains pre-intervention curricular information on the economic development program.

Eastern University, Pennsylvania. 2000. Minutes from Business Faculty Meeting. 2 November.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;
Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention
Information found: Information germane to growing problems in the economic development program and proposed faculty responses.

Economic development syllabi. 2000. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copies.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;
Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention
Information found: These reflect the state of the economic curriculum just prior to intervention, including required reading materials and assignments

EDEV history archives. 2000. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: Historical information gathered on the occasion of the economic development program's fifteenth anniversary.

Engel, J. 1996. A draft of proposed major outcomes in the economic development curriculum. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; memorandum from professor to business and economic development faculty

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document includes a list of 34 proposed learning outcomes for students in the economic development program

Geiger, L. 2000. History of economic development curriculum. Eastern University, Pennsylvania

Nature/Origin: a collection of copies of institutional catalogs including economic development program courses; from personal files of program founder.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This collection of materials provides the basis upon which changes to the economic development program can easily be observed over its first sixteen years.

Geiger, L. 2006. Economic development statistics: early period verses recent period. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; compiled by former program director.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: In this document, the creator of the economic development program summarizes the effect of program changes on enrollments and graduation rates in the economic development program during the pre-intervention years.

Graduate catalogs, 1992. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: These copies of pages of the economic development section of Eastern College catalogs from the program's first eight years demonstrate the constancy of curricular change during that period.

Halsey, M. 2000. Notes from 11/02/2000 business faculty meeting on urban economic development.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; business faculty meeting notes

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document includes the categories of outcomes identified for the purposes of a program assessment of the urban economic development program.

Heidelbrecht, C. 2005. The history and development of Eastern University's Urban Economic Development program. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; unpublished master's degree thesis.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: Though produced after the intervention, this document provides a detailed account of the urban economic development program from its inception, including a timeline of service for former program directors, the competitive landscape and enrollment-to-graduation analysis.

Lowery, R. 2001. Enrollment history for the economic development program from 1996-2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; submitted by former program director

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document charts the thirty-three percent drop in economic development program enrollment five years prior to the intervention.

Lowery, R. 2007, 23 January. [rlowery@eastern.edu] Historical data required for Economic Development study. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: Private email message to MT Ridington [tridingt@eastern.edu].

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document revealed more information about curricular change just prior to the intervention and the challenges and complexities it added to program execution and student persistence.

McCoun, T. 2000. International economic development program. Eastern University.

Nature/Origin: EU/Institutional research chart; memorandum from marketing director to the provost, dean and director of the economic development program.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document identifies challenges and issues facing the marketing director for the economic development program.

McLallen, P. 2007. MBA and MS in economic development graduation rates from 1982-2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/Institutional research chart; developed by P. McLallen.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document provides an analysis of the graduation and attrition rates for economic development program students from 1982-2001.

Memorandum of Agreement of the Cornerstone Christian College and Eastern College Alliance. 1999. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; prepared by B. Birmingham.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document contained strategy and operational information concerning the endeavor to establish overseas programs through international partnerships

Moultrie, C. 1998, 19 August. Initial planning for EC. Memorandum to V Nix-Earl. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by former program director

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This memorandum to the dean documents a new program director's response to flagging enrollments in which she outlines her observations, makes initial plans and raises strategic questions.

Networking. 1996. A publication for alumni of the Eastern College graduate program in economic development. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; program newsletter.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document makes various program announcements, but particularly informative is the section on curricular revision.

Royal-Moses, S and MacTavish, S. 1996, November 21. Final marketing plan for the new economic development curriculum. Memorandum to H Howard, V Nix-Early, J Stapleford and R Ross. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; memorandum from the marketing and enrollment managers to the provost, dean, directors of business and economic development programs

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document provides a response to calls from leadership for a marketing plan, however the amount budgeted far exceeds the funds available according to other documents.

School of International Leadership and Development (SILD) Research on EDEV. 2000. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This information was gathered at the inception of the new SILD as a normal part of program review and evaluation

Smith, Ja. 2001. Results of Research. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; unpublished report by MBA research assistant.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention; Intervention

Information found: An extensive phone survey of fourteen NGOs concerning their training needs and perceptions of the economic development program. Preparation of the survey instrument also included a valuable assessment of economic development curricular development changes during the program's prior history.

Smith, Je. 2001. Needs Analysis of the Economic Development Program Curriculum at Eastern College. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. Unpublished report.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This information was gathered by a graduate student as a part of the intervention preparation process.

Stapleford, J. 1996, 13 September. Meeting with Harold. Meeting notes from program director files. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; notes from a meeting between the director of business programs and the provost

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: Included with unrelated issues in this document is a section outlining a new economic development curriculum and a request for additional marketing funds.

Stapleford, J. 1996, 23 September. Graduate enrollment. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; memorandum from the director of business program to all business faculty

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This memorandum documents enrollment from 1984 through 1995 and challenges facing the program with a question as to whether marketing is to blame for flagging results.

Stapleford, J. 1996, 1 November. Marketing the economic development program. Memorandum to Rich, Sheila, Stephanie and Van. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; memorandum from the director of business program to the Dean and directors of marketing, enrollment and the program

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document calls for a marketing plan for the economic development program and an expanded budget to execute it.

Stapleford, J. 1997, 14 October. [jstaplef@eastern.edu] Patience-NOT. Private email message to [jschauss@eastern.edu] and [hhoward@eastern.edu].

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; email from business programs director to CFO

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This email documents the lack of marketing expenditure on the economic development program along with a request for a three-hundred plus percent increase in the marketing budget.

Stapleford, J. 2008, 22 April. [jstaplef@eastern.edu] EDev history.

Nature/Origin: Private email message to [tridingt@eastern.edu]

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: This document contained information concerning the failure (of seventy percent) of early program alumni to return to their countries of origin

Strategic development document: Cornerstone Christian College. 2000.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy. Prepared by W. de Kock, CCC

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: Strategy & international partnerships

The economic development program of Eastern University: a commemorative magazine. 2004. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; a publication celebrating the first 20 years of the economic development program.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention; post-intervention

Information found: This publication speaks to the history of the economic development program. Of special interest is the section entitled, *Where are the directors now?*, which identifies and shows dates of service for the many former directors of the program.

Volpe, P and Suravarapu, G. 1991. Accreditation of graduate program at Eastern College. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. Unpublished report.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention

Information found: A graduate student project analyzing the economic development program in its first decade, including its strengths and weaknesses.

APPENDIX 4

Archival sources: Intervention phase (these documents provide information concerning the intervention of the administration in the economic development program during 2000-2002)

Inclusion criteria: Documents where authorship was clearly established were selected for review based upon their potential for presenting relevant evidence related to one of three developmental program phases under review in this study: pre-intervention, intervention, post-intervention.

Birmingham, B. and Lowery, R. 2001. MBA/MS Global Economic Development Program Review Summary. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. Unpublished report.

(includes all of the following)

Executive Summary

Distance education focus group

Industry leader focus group

1996 Faculty curriculum outcomes

Organizational phone survey form.

EDEV-campus proposed layout

EDEV-distance education model-proposed layout.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This notebook contained multiple documents that were foundational to the curricular intervention of 2002 as outlined above.

Birmingham, B. 2002. Organizational change project proposal. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; created by the assistant dean.

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document outlines the proposed institutional intervention (including redesign, delivery and evaluation) for the economic development program at Eastern University.

Campus program: budget projection. 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: Budget projection formed for a campus economic development program from planning phase documentation.

DiRaddo, C. 2001. Economic development focus group: report on findings. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by associate dean.

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document reports on a two-day focus group meeting of five NGO leaders who met at Eastern University to provide general feedback on the needs of NGOs, the current status of the economic development program as well as proposed changes.

Economic development research review. 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD File copy; compiled by B. Birmingham and R. Lowery.

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document gathers information for institutional leaders to assist in formulating the program intervention. Included are: meeting agenda, the mandate, distance education focus group findings of 1998, industry leader focus group findings of 2001, organizational phone survey form, industry research, curriculum outcomes of 1996 by EDEV faculty, scenario one (proposed one year on-campus program), scenario two (proposed eighteen month distance program), current EDEV student comments.

EDEV curriculum file. 2002. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: Information on economic development curriculum gathered from planning phase documentation.

Executive Summary of Research Findings, 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; compiled by economic development taskforce.

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document reviews strengths and challenges of the economic development program, research undertaken in the intervention process and recommendations for the program going forward.

Faculty summaries. 2002. Eastern University School of Leadership and Development. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: These are biographical sketches of economic development faculty teaching in the program at the time of the intervention.

Fraser, D. 2000, August. [dfraser@eastern.edu] The mandate for a taskforce on IEDev program.

Nature/Origin: Private email message to B Birmingham [bbirming@eastern.edu], R Lowery [rlowery@eastern.edu] and A Jepson [ajepson@eastern.edu].

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document from the Dean publicly announces that the economic development program is in crisis and charges three individuals to formulate a task force in order to recommend strategies and time tables for intervention.

International Economic Development – proposed plan (aka scenario one), 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by intervention task force group.

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document includes a schematic of a potential new layout for a one-year residential MBA in economic development program, including program requirements and elective options as well as pros and cons.

Kreig, J, Sisya, C, Orumbi, H, and Rees, M. 2001. International students' reflection on MBA/MS program in Global Economic Development. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. Unpublished paper.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; submitted by MBA international students

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document offers a critique of the content, philosophy and coursework structure of the economic development program from the point of view of international students enrolled in the campus-based program at the time.

MS in international development: distance education model (aka scenario two), 2001. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by intervention task force group.

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This document includes a schematic of a proposed thirty-six credit, eighteen month hybrid program delivered with partners via on-line course work and limited overseas residencies.

School of Leadership and Development (SLD) benchmarking research. 2002. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Intervention

Information found: This benchmarking research project had a marketing orientation to it as it included competitive analysis and featured program and cost information.

APPENDIX 5

Archival documentary sources: Post-intervention phase (these documents provide information concerning economic development program conditions following the intervention of the administration in 2000-2002)

Inclusion criteria: Documents where authorship was clearly established were selected for review based upon their potential for presenting relevant evidence related to one of three developmental program phases under review in this study: pre-intervention, intervention, post-intervention.

Abboud-Smith, J. 2005, November. Synopsis marketing survey. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; compiled by the marketing office.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document contained information related to a marketing survey conducted in order to assess the effectiveness of proposed SLD (and economic development) marketing messages.

Annan, A, Holonich, D, Davis, H, Drummond, J, Zaehring, J, Nsongo, J, Qesteri, L, Howard, N and Eikenberry, S. 2006. SLD Marketing plan. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. Unpublished report.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document contained information gained through marketing research of the revised program, including alumni feedback and competitive analysis.

Berol, P. W. 2007, 5 January. [pberol@eastern.edu] Budget info. Private email message to [bjayo@eastern.edu]

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; generated by finance director

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This email offered added explanation to institutional budgets, which helped clarify economic development budgetary anomalies during several of the post-intervention years, mostly having to do with institutional transitions and the lag-time required by staff for learning and utilizing new accounts.

Birmingham, B. 2003. Change project report. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.. Unpublished report.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; memorandum from the assistant dean to organizational partners.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document contains the initial (and evidently only) evaluative report of the economic development program intervention process. It also includes valuable historic information not captured elsewhere.

Birmingham, B. 2004. Changes at Eastern University. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/Institutional research chart; developed by assistant dean.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document reports on structural changes to the program, particularly in terms of where it is housed and how it is supported administratively.

Birmingham, B. 2006. School of leadership and development growth plan. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; developed by the assistant dean.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document reveals the future aspirations of the assistant dean for the recovering economic development program, including potential alliances, staff growth, enrollment goals, marketing strategies and new initiatives.

Enrollment and retention trends, 2003. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy;

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This documents enrollment and retention trends in the program from its inception and was compiled by a former program administrator

Fraser, D. 2003. Changes in the organization of Eastern University. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/Institutional research chart; developed by the provost.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document reports on structural changes to the University and their objectives. It also includes details on the economic development program, particularly in terms of where it is housed, how it is supported administratively and revised reporting relationships.

Graduate economic development vitae, 2002. E. Israel. p. 26.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy. Listing of program director and faculty.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention.

Information found: This document contains a biographical statement on the first post-intervention economic development program director

Guida, R. 2005, November. Synopsis: SLD marketing survey. Memorandum to School of Leadership marketing staff. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; compiled by the marketing research associate.
Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention
Information found: This document gives evidence of the marketing analysis that occurred after the intervention, focusing specifically on global advertising opportunities.

International Economic Development Student Focus Group. 2005. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/Marketing file copy; generated by S. MacTavish
Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention
Information found: This document contains the notes from an economic development focus group study of international students' assessment of the program, especially for the purposes of better understanding its marketing challenges and opportunities.

Rosado, C. 2003. The MS/MBA degree programs in urban economic development. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; composed by first urban program director.
Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention
Information found: This document repeats the rationale for separating the urban economic development program from its international sibling and placing it in a separately administered urban-based school of the University. It also contains information of the curricular changes that would accompany such relocation.

School of Leadership and Development (SLD) Budgets. 2007. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/Finance file copies; prepared by P. W. Berol.
Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention
Information found: These documents included complete budgets and budgetary detail for the School of Leadership and Development (including the economic development program and overhead costs) from the fiscal 2002 through 2007 years.

School of Leadership and Development (SLD) Marketing Plan. 2006. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; a project of the marketing class
Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention
Information found: This document represents the fruit of the MBA marketing class as they sought to create a practical, cost-effective marketing plan for enhancing enrollment in the economic development program.

SLD Marketing Archive. 2007. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: A report of annual marketing activity in SLD

SLD Newsletter. 2002. Eastern University, Pennsylvania

Nature/Origin: EU/Institutional research chart; alumni newsletter

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document reports on new global initiatives and how the program is expanding through partnership activity.

Stevenson, G. Economic development 3 year update. 2006. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; compiled by.

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: This document contained information on student field placements and alumni work activity for the first three years following the program intervention.

Survey of graduate messaging. 2005. Eastern University, Pennsylvania. File copy.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy

Inclusion criteria: Post-intervention

Information found: A mini-research exercise using focus groups and interviews to understand how SLD was perceived by internal audiences.

The economic development program of Eastern University: a commemorative magazine. 2004. Eastern University, Pennsylvania.

Nature/Origin: EU/SLD file copy; a publication celebrating the first 20 years of the economic development program.

Inclusion criteria: Pre-intervention; post-intervention

Information found: This publication speaks to the history of the economic development program. Of special interest is the section entitled, *Where are the directors now?*, which identifies and shows dates of service for the many former directors of the program.

APPENDIX 6

Research Action Plan

Document Analysis

1. Secure all MBA program intervention and related documentation from the Assistant Dean. Documents recovered include:
 - a. Cover memo and agenda
 - b. Mandate of economic development taskforce
 - c. Distance education focus groups
 - d. Industry leader focus groups
 - e. Organizational phone survey form
 - f. Results of organizational survey research
 - g. Curriculum categorized
 - h. Curriculum outcomes for EDEV-1996
 - i. Organizational correlation
 - j. Potential competition
 - k. EDEV-campus proposed format
 - l. EDEV-distance education model-proposed layout
 - m. International students perception
 - n. Executive Summary
 - o. Cornerstone agreement
 - p. Cornerstone strategic plan
 - q. CST MOU
 - r. File: economic development programs
 - s. Listing of documentary resources
2. Secure all MBA related marketing and alumni documents from Director of marketing & communications. Documents recovered include:
 - a. Marketing survey. November 2005 synopsis
 - b. SLD November 2005 survey for distribution
 - c. Benchmarking research
 - d. SILD advertising archive
 - e. SILD research on EDEV
 - f. SLD marketing plan. April 2006
 - g. EDEV history archives
 - h. Needs analysis of the Economic Development curriculum. May 2001
 - i. Survey-September 2005

3. Secure MBA program related documentation from current administrators, including the Provost and the Dean. Documents recovered include:
 - a. Eastern College graduate catalogs
 - b. Faculty resumes
 - c. Student surveys (thesis and otherwise)
 - i. Survey of attitudes of alumni of the economic development program of Eastern College
 - ii. The Eastern College economic development program: a graduate student survey
 - iii. Accreditation of graduate program at Eastern College
 - iv. History and development of Eastern University's Urban Economic Development program

4. Secure additional documentation from former MBA program directors and faculty members. Documents recovered include:
 - a. Four untitled documents (excel spreadsheets of alumni information)
 - b. Business students—past 7 years. March 2002
 - c. Economic development: investment in human capital
 - d. Economic development students – CBDT/internships
 - e. Economic development course descriptions, August 2002.
 - f. The MS/MBA degree programs in urban economic development: revision of program proposal, April 2003
 - g. Three-ring binder: MS/MBA international track program research meeting, June 2001
 - h. Three-ring binder: MBA/MS international economic development: proposed curriculum and delivery timeframe, 2001/2002
 - i. Three-ring binder: Economic development syllabi, 2000
 - j. Analysis of ED program (Geiger)
 - k. Characteristics of ED program (Geiger)

5. Secure additional documents as leads are produced in focus groups and interviews. Documents recovered include:
 - a. File: Economic development curriculum (source, unknown)
 - b. SLD budgets, 2004-2007 (source, CCGPS VP for administration)
 - c. SLD budget detail sheets 2000-2007 (source, CCGPS VP for administration)
 - d. Enrollment and retention trends through 2003 (source, Director of information services)
 - e. Faculty & academic committee minutes, 2000-2002 (source, University archivist)
 - f. Enrollment and retention trends through 2006 (source, Special Assistant to Assistant Dean)
 - g. International economic development student focus group (source, Chief Marketing Officer)
 - h. Focus group IED (source, chief Marketing Officer)

- i. Field education information packet, MBA/MS programs in economic development (source, unknown)

Focus Groups

1. Conduct personal focus groups with:
 - a. SLD staff, administration and faculty I
 - a. SLD staff, administration and faculty II
 - b. SLD development program students in the US and South Africa
 - i. Because of geographic disparity SLD students were engaged on-line. After a failed attempt at using a BLOG which mimicked a focus group type experience, a majority of SLD students responded to a set of open-ended questions via the online resource, Survey Monkey.
 - c. SLD development program students in the US
 - i. Five students from the US MBA/MA program participated in a focus group to provide input on the failure of the BLOG and the merits of Survey Monkey
 - d. SLD alumni from 2003 to present
 - i. Because of geographic disparity SLD alumni were engaged on-line. After a failed attempt at using a BLOG which mimicked a focus group type experience, a good number of SLD alumni responded to a set of open-ended questions via the online resource, Survey Monkey.

Interviews

1. Conduct personal interviews with:
 - e. Assistant Dean of School of Leadership and Development (SLD) when in country (presently teaching in South Africa);
 - f. Eastern University President;
 - g. Graduate Dean of Finance and Administration;
 - h. SLD economic development Program Coordinator;
 - i. SLD Director of Marketing and Communication;
 - j. Former SLD Dean and University Provost;
 - k. Former economic development Program Director and faculty;
 - l. Current economic development Program Director.
2. Conduct on-line interviews with economic development students, including:
 - a. Four students from our South African MBA/MA program participated in on-line interviews to provide input on the failure of the BLOG and the merits of Survey Monkey.

APPENDIX 7

Plan of evaluation

Was there a plan of evaluation? The data fail to support there existed a written and generally accessible proposed timeline for the activities associated with the intervention plan of 2002. Eleven of the twelve interviewed individually and in focus groups had no knowledge of a timeline. A former program director suggested that timelines existed, but were less formal and dispersed among the many activities.

Some of them determined themselves, like the marketing plan for the start-up year. That had to have happened obviously for the start-up year. For others, no, it was a matter of whether we were free to make hires—in the sense of the director role and in the sense of the alumni network. (interview respondent 1A)

The research question also asks if there was a plan of evaluation for the activities associated with the intervention plan of 2002. None of those queried affirmed the existence of such a plan. A former administrator admitted having no knowledge of either an intervention plan, timeline or evaluation plan and suggested that if such a plan had existed, "... it needs to be put out there on a regular basis to remind us of our objectives." (FG respondent 10C)

Therefore, the data fails to support that there existed a written and generally accessible proposed timeline and plan of evaluation for the activities associated with the intervention plan of 2002.

APPENDIX 8

Research diary

1. Interview with former Assistant Dean of SLD
 - a. Set time and location of interview Dec. 6, 2006
 - b. Reconfirmation sent via email Dec. 12, 2006
 - c. Interview at Concord Library Dec. 15, 2006
 - d. Interview transcription Dec. 17, 2006
2. Identification/collection of documents for analysis Dec06-May07
 - a. History and development of Eastern University's Urban Economic Development program (MS thesis), Heidelbrecht
 - b. Marketing survey, Nov 2005 Synopsis, Abboud-Smith
 - c. SLD Nov 2005 survey for distribution, Abboud-Smith
 - d. Survey-Sept. 2005, Abboud-Smith
 - e. Executive Summary 2, Birmingham
 - f. Cover memo and agenda, Birmingham
 - g. Mandate of economic development taskforce, Birmingham
 - h. Distance education focus groups, Birmingham
 - i. Industry leader focus groups, Birmingham
 - j. Organizational phone survey form, Birmingham
 - k. Results of organizational survey research, Birmingham
 - l. Curriculum categorized, Birmingham
 - m. Organizational correlation, Birmingham
 - n. Potential competition, Birmingham
 - o. Curriculum outcomes for EDEV-1996
 - p. EDEV-campus proposed layout, Birmingham
 - q. EDEV-distance education model-proposed layout, Birmingham
 - r. International students perception, Birmingham
 - s. Cornerstone agreement, Birmingham
 - t. Cornerstone strategic plan, Birmingham
 - u. CST MOU, Birmingham
 - v. File: economic development programs, Birmingham
 - w. File: Eastern College graduate catalogs, Morgan
 - x. File: Faculty resumes, Morgan
 - y. File: Student surveys, Morgan
 - i. Survey of the attitudes of alumni of the graduate program in economic development at Eastern College. 1990. Bromley and Carlson.
 - ii. The Eastern College economic development program a graduate student survey. May 1991. Adisu and Barnes.
 - iii. Accreditation of graduate program at Eastern College. 1991. Volpe and Suravarapu.
 - z. Field Study program, Morgan
 - aa. Needs analysis of the Economic Development curriculum. May 2001. Smith.

- bb. File: Economic Development curriculum.
- cc. SLD Marketing plan. April 2006.
- dd. Benchmarking Research. (return to Abboud-Smith)
- ee. SILD Advertising Archive. (return to Abboud-Smith)
- ff. SILD Research on EDEV. (return to Abboud-Smith)
- gg. EDEV History Archives. (return to Abboud-Smith)
- hh. SLD budgets (2004-2007), Berol
- ii. SLD budget detail sheets (2000-2007), Jayo
- jj. Listing of documentary resources from BAB (delivered at interview)
- kk. Various documents about EDEV intervention promised by Lowery
- ll. Various documents about EDEV history promised by Bower
- mm. EDEV-related documents promised by Geiger
- nn. Faculty & academic committee minutes, promised by Boehlke
- oo. Obtain enrollment trends by program from C. Urban
- pp. Enrollment and retention trends through 2003 by McLallen
- qq. Updated enrollment and retention trends, obtained from Lowery
- rr. Information on international graduation placements, obtained from Stapleford
- ss. Information on EU MBA curriculum, obtained from Bronkema
- tt. Information on EU MBA competencies, obtained from Bronkema

3. Interview with GPS Dean/Finance & Administration

- a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 12, 2007
- b. Reconfirmation sent via email Jan. 12, 2007
- c. Interview at EU/GPS-Valley Forge (private office) Jan. 24, 2007
- d. Transcription Jan. 25, 2007

4. Interview with SLD Program Coordinator

- a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 12, 2007
- b. Reconfirmation sent via email Jan. 12, 2007
- c. Interview at EU/GPS-Valley Forge (private office) Jan. 24, 2007
- d. Transcription Jan. 24, 2007

5. Interview with SLD Director of Marketing/Comm.

- a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 12, 2007
- b. Reconfirmation sent via email Jan. 12, 2007
- c. Interview at EU/GPS-Valley Forge (private office) Jan. 24, 2007
- d. Transcription Jan. 24, 2007

6. Focus group with SLD staff/administration/faculty

- a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 12, 2007
- b. Reconfirmation sent via email Jan. 12, 2007
- c. Interview at EU/GPS-Valley Forge (private office) Jan. 25, 2007
- d. Transcription Jan. 25, 2007

7. Focus group with SLD staff/administration/faculty

- a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 12, 2007

- b. Reconfirmation sent via email Jan. 12, 2007
 - c. Interview at EU/GPS-Valley Forge (private office) Jan. 26, 2007
 - d. Transcription Jan. 26, 2007
- 8. Interview with faculty and former SLD program director
 - a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 26, 2007
 - b. Reconfirmation sent via email Feb. 14, 2007
 - c. Interview at EU/A&S-St. Davids (private office) Feb. 21, 2007
 - d. Transcription Feb. 21, 2007
- 9. Interview with EU former SLD Dean & Provost
 - a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 26, 2007
 - b. Reconfirmation sent via email Feb. 14, 2007
 - c. Phone Interview Feb. 22, 2007
 - d. Transcription Feb. 22, 2007
- 10. Interview with EU President
 - a. Set time and location of interview Jan. 26, 2007
 - b. Reconfirmation sent via email Feb. 22, 2007
 - c. Interview at EU/A&S-St. Davids (at subject's home) Mar. 15, 2007
 - d. Transcription Mar. 15, 2007
- 11. Survey Monkey with campus-based & foreign students (EDEV, IDEV)
 - a. Launched Survey Monkey April 1, 2007
 - b. Reminder sent via email May 14, 2007
 - c. Survey Monkey closed May 29, 2007
 - d. Results downloaded and printed May 31, 2007
- 12. Focus group (follow-up) with campus-based students (EDEV)
 - a. Set time and location of interview April 20, 2007
 - b. Reconfirmation sent via email May 14, 2007
 - c. Held at GPS-Valley Forge (private classroom) May 16, 2007
 - d. Transcription May 29, 2007
- 13. Survey Monkey with SLD recent alumni
 - a. Launched Survey Monkey April 28, 2007
 - b. Reminder sent via email May 17, 2007
 - c. Survey Monkey closed May 29, 2007
 - d. Results downloaded and printed May 29, 2007
- 14. Online interviews (follow-up) with South African students (EDEV Africa)
 - a. Request for participants May 1, 2007
 - b. Email interviews sent to four respondents May 18, 2007
 - c. Interviews completed May 29, 2007
 - d. Transcription & printing June 1, 2007

APPENDIX 9

Interview Questions: Current economic development students

1. What country do you consider home?
2. How much time have you spent in international development work or similar experiences?
3. What type of development work were you involved with prior to enrolling in this program?
4. In what regions of the world did the above work experience take place?
5. What type of development work do you hope to be involved in when you graduate from this program?
6. In what format do you hope to work (employment versus volunteer)?
7. In what regions of the world do you hope to work?
8. The texts used in the courses are up-to-date and relevant to the changing conditions in international development. Agree or disagree? Why or why not?
9. Course instruction includes references to case studies. Agree or disagree? Why or why not?
10. Student assignments include the development of case studies. Agree or disagree? Why or why not?
11. The cohort classroom model fosters group unity, encourages shared learning and enhances persistence to graduation. Agree or disagree? Why or why not?
12. The field semester will enhance my transition to an overseas development role. Agree or disagree? Why or why not?
13. Please identify any suggestions or criticisms you have about this on-line interview so I can improve it for future use.
14. Please provide your contact information if you would like to be involved in further interviews if necessitated.

APPENDIX 10

Interview Questions: Recent (post-2002) economic development alumni

1. Did the field semester help to facilitate your transition to international development work?
2. Are you presently involved in development work as a vocation or avocation?
3. If so, what kind of development work do you do? And where?
4. What aspects of the education you received at Eastern University have most helped you in the field?
5. Is there a subject we missed or should have spent more time presenting?
6. Please feel free to register any additional thoughts you have concerning your educational experience in the economic development program at Eastern University.

APPENDIX 11

Focus Group participants

Personal focus groups were conducted with:

1. Two economic development faculty and one curricular developer
2. One former program administrator and two current program staff persons
3. Economic development students in the campus-based program
 - a. Five students from the MBA/MA in development programs participated in a focus group to provide input on the failure of the BLOG and the merits of Survey Monkey. Student participants were from Afghanistan, China, Indonesia, Philadelphia (US) and Seattle (US).

APPENDIX 12

Permission to Audiotape

Investigator's Name: M. Thomas Ridington
Department: Center for Higher and Adult Education, Stellenbosch University
Project Title: An Evaluation of an International Graduate Economic Development Program

Subject: _____ Date: _____

Log #: _____

I give M. Thomas Ridington permission to audiotape me. This audiotape will be used only for the following purpose(s):

RESEARCH

This audiotape will be used as a part of a research project at Stellenbosch University. I have already given written consent for my participation in this research project. At no time will my name be used.

WHEN WILL I BE AUDIOTAPED?

I agree to be audiotaped during the time period: December 2006 through August 2007.

HOW LONG WILL THE TAPES BE USED?

I give my permission for these tapes to be used from: December 2006 through December 2008.

The audiotape(s) will be stored in a secure file cabinet at the investigator's residence for the duration of the study.

WHAT IF I CHANGE MY MIND?

I understand that I can withdraw my permission at any time. Upon my request, the audiotape(s) will no longer be used. This will not affect my care or relationship with M. Thomas Ridington or Stellenbosch University in any way.

OTHER

I understand that I will not be paid for being audio taped or for the use of the audiotape(s).

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

If I want more information about the audiotape(s), or if I have questions or concerns at any time, I can contact:

Investigator's Name: M. Thomas Ridington
Department/Institution: Center for Higher and Adult Education, Stellenbosch University
Street Address: c/o 15 Valley Creek Road
Malvern, PA 19355

Telephone: (610) 937-7816 (mobile)

A copy of this form will be mailed to me for my records. The original will be kept by the person(s) named above.

Please Print

Subject's Name: _____

Date: _____

Address: _____

Telephone: _____

Subject's Signature: _____

(Or signature of parent or legally responsible person if subject is a minor or is incompetent to sign.)

Relationship to Subject: _____

Subject cannot sign because _____,
but consents orally to be audiotaped under the conditions described above.

APPENDIX 13

Interview Topics and Issues for Guiding Conversation

1. What has been your personal history with the economic development program at Eastern University?
2. Please tell me what you can about the issues that precipitated the redesign of the economic development program in 2002. Please describe the redesign process and clarify for me your role in it.
3. Can you recall the plan that emerged from the process? (if not, provide subject with a summary reminder from documents)
4. Have the activities since 2002 matched those described in the plan? If not, were the changes in activities justified?
5. Were the activities since 2002 conducted according to the proposed timeline? Was there a plan of evaluation?
6. Were the appropriate staff hired, trained and retained, and are they working in accordance with the program plan? Did appropriate personnel conduct program activities?
7. Were the program resources in line with forecast expectations?
8. Did the program satisfactorily reach the target population?
9. Did the students find the revised program helpful, and did they plan to use what they learned?

APPENDIX 14

Listing of Personal Interview subjects

1. Eastern University President;
2. Former School of Leadership and Development Dean and University Provost;
3. Graduate Dean of Finance and Administration;
4. Former Assistant Dean of School of Leadership and Development, interim Director of the Economic Development Program and faculty member;
5. Former Economic Development Program Director and faculty member;
6. Program Coordinator for Economic Development program;
7. Director of Marketing and Communication for School of Leadership and Development (and by implication the Economic Development program)
8. Current Director of Economic Development program
9. Twenty-six students from the economic development program
 - a. Because of geographic remoteness SLD students were engaged on-line. After a failed attempt at using a BLOG which mimicked a focus group type experience, economic development students responded to a set of open-ended interview questions via the online resource, Survey Monkey.
10. Twenty-one recent (post-2002) economic development alumni
 - a. Because of geographic remoteness SLD alumni were engaged on-line. After a failed attempt at using a BLOG which mimicked a focus group type experience, recent alumni responded to a set of open-ended questions via the on-line resource, Survey Monkey.
11. Four Africa-residency-based development program students
 - a. Four students from the Africa-based economic development program participated in on-line interviews to provide input on the failure of the BLOG and the merits of Survey Monkey.

APPENDIX 15

The weblog debacle: engaging international students in qualitative research

After consideration of numerous options to qualitatively engage SLD alumni and students, who reside in many different countries across multiple time zones, two on-line resources arose as meriting special attention: open-ended interviews (particularly Survey Monkey) and web logs (or BLOGs).

While favorable comments were offered for Survey Monkey as a research tool capable of gathering rich description, the on-line tool initially selected was the BLOG because it best emulated the dynamics of a focus group. BLOGs are an exceedingly popular web-based informational resources for people under the age of thirty, a similar demographic to SLD students and recent SLD alumni. A BLOG is an internet based tool that permits a subject to post comments or queries to a virtual community for interactive, non-simultaneous response. When convenient, or as they have access to technology, respondents “post” their remarks to the original query in full-view of the on-line community. Others then have opportunity to respond to respondents or to the original query. The resulting conversational thread mirrors group dialogue about as well as is possible in an asynchronous environment. In the end, it was this aspect more than any other that determined the BLOG’s ascendancy for this particular research project.

The research-oriented BLOG that was created for these purposes was also known as “SLD blogger” and was constructed to mimic focus groups’ preference for sampling homogeneous units. Before being deployed with the more remote alumni group, a student-oriented version was crafted and tested with SLD students, both in the US-based and South Africa residency-based programs. The results were alarming. Not a single US or South African student chose to engage the SLD blogger. A quick assessment of the situation conducted through informal conversations with several non-respondent US-based student participants revealed some unanticipated and fatal flaws in the BLOG approach. Three mentioned that the BLOG lacked anonymity and that their postings could be viewed by anyone, including their faculty members. Other comments that were offered included:

- “Too much time was required to write long answers”
- “I read BLOGs, but I don’t write on them because it takes too much time”
- “The BLOG required a Google account, and I don’t have one”
- “BLOGS are personal, and I didn’t know who you were”

As a result, the SLD blogger was discontinued and a Survey Monkey open-ended survey was created and deployed. Responses to Survey Monkey were encouraging. Twenty-six students (of twenty seven possible participants) and twenty-one SLD alumni (of a possible sixty-one) responded to the Survey Monkey on-line interview. Included in Survey Monkey was a request for volunteers to participate in focus groups or interviews to discuss further the failure of the BLOG and their general response to on-line research tools. Five US students volunteered to participate in a facilitated focus group, and four South African students agreed to on-line interviews.

All of the US-based and South African residency-based students were comfortable with technology, but used it differently. Because the American students work with international NGOs in China, Indonesia, Afghanistan, Seattle and Philadelphia, they valued technology’s ability to enable them to connect with friends and family back home. The interactivity of some of the new technology is especially appreciated.

“When I was abroad, I just did mass emails all the time, but you don’t really get much response to an email where there’s no visualization. Facebook, where I can see what someone is up to, it’s better than email” (Seattle, FG 14A).

The South African residency-based students tend to utilize technology in a more utilitarian fashion perhaps because of access issues.

“I don’t have access to the Internet 24 hours per day... The digital gap is a pity. I wish people were more computer friendly in the two thirds world” (Costa Rica, FG 14B).

The US-based students rely on technology's convenience and portability. As a result, the span of time each spends on the Internet ranged from one to ten hours daily. However, blogging constituted merely a small portion of their time on-line. Only one of the US-based students had a personal BLOG. Most mentioned they lacked the time to BLOG, and for most blogging was a brief escape from their graduate work. "Blogging, who has the time? I look at them every couple of days and that's about it" (Indonesia, FG 14A). None of the South African residency-based students BLOG, "I have too many things on my plate to learn anything which requires much time commitment" (Ukraine, FG 14B).

When asked why they didn't participate in SLD blogger, the responses were similar to those gathered informally. The most frequent concerns expressed were the lack of anonymity and the lack of time. Comments from a South African residency-based student suggested a cultural divide accompanied the digital one, "Perhaps [BLOGS are] popular in US and Europe, but not that big here" (Bangladesh, FG 14B).

All agreed that Survey Monkey was speedier and easier, "For me, it was much easier to get something via email, rather than have to go to the website and figure out some new format" (Indonesia, FG 12A). Several expressed that BLOGs are too open ended, "One thing that was different about it was that you gave us some options, but then we could write our own, so we didn't have to expand or come up with big answers for everything. I didn't have to spend a lot of time on every single thing" (Philadelphia, FG 14A). Another student reported that Survey Monkey, "...is structured. You can see the beginning and the end and you know in ten minutes I'll be done this" (China, FG 14A).

Additionally, the fact that Survey Monkey veiled their identity was important as well. "I think a BLOG is good for certain things... If it's for research and you want results that aren't tainted and true, and people can feel secure with their answers, then for me Survey Monkey is a better option" (Indonesia, FG 14A). "For me, the privacy was a welcome difference. I felt that I was responding to you personally, and not to everyone" (Ukraine, FG 14B).

APPENDIX 16

Sample interview transcript

Interview 1A

December 15, 2006, 10:00-11:30 am

Interviewer (I) – M. Thomas Ridington

Participant (P) – a former program director at Eastern University

I. I wonder if we can begin with you talking a bit about your history with the economic development program at Eastern University?

P. Okay... I started at the Center for Organizational Excellence, and my first exposure was through the interns who were all students from the economic development program. So I would hear bits and pieces of what they were studying. The two gentlemen I worked with, [REDACTED] was a professor in the program, so I would hear about the program, you know, various pieces about faculty meetings, curricular discussions, etc. I came to Eastern in '96, and, let me get my numbers right, I started the program in 1997. I did not come to Eastern for the purpose. I came to work in the Center for Organizational Excellence, to involve myself with the work they were doing with leaders in the developing world. [REDACTED] and [REDACTED] thought the program would be of interest to me, so I started the program in the fall of 1997 with my first class with [REDACTED] and then graduated from the program two and a half years later—I did it part-time while working full-time. So I finished the program in May of 2000 and was part of the “new” curriculum [laughs]—I’m using that word in a funny way. That was the year they had just decided that the program was going to require a field trip with faculty to either—the initial plan was that faculty would go every year, one to India, one to Peru, and one to Kenya if the numbers were high enough. It would be the first thing you do in the program, when you arrive and get on a plane with [REDACTED], [REDACTED] or [REDACTED]. [clears throat] Uh, the numbers weren’t there, and some of the students didn’t want to go because they were just coming from those places, and it was quite expensive to pay for an airline ticket and turn around and go back for a three week experience. But it was meant to go and look at a series of development projects—hospitals, educational institutions, and agricultural institutions.

I. Did you find the whole idea of starting overseas, rather than finishing overseas, had value to it?

P. At that time, the whole idea sounded wonderful to me, but I had no experience. I'd done a mission trip to Guatemala, back-packing through Europe, so the whole idea was absolutely appealing to me, but I recall two of my classmates who were just coming back from 15 years in Nigeria, and the list of things included a bore well. That's what they used—they lived this! [voice inflected for emphasis]. Another classmate from Mali just couldn't afford it. These guys couldn't scrape enough together for their rent every month. The problem was the timing of the change, from what I recall. Somewhere in your documents is a full report of changes in the development program from [REDACTED], whose undergraduate degree was in education and curriculum. She reported that they left for the US in May and were notified in August that they were to have to do this.

I: Well, that reinforces what the documents seem to suggest about change here. In this program it seems to be very difficult to assume that one size fits all because people come from so many different experiences.

P: Yeah... yeah.

I: The focus of this project is on the intervention that occurred in the early 2000s and the changes that have succeeded since then. So, I was wondering if you could share with me your sense of what the issues were that precipitated the redesign of the program.

P: Low enrollments would be number one. People attributed that to the program being resident with business faculty who did not have international experience because two of the major historical figures were retiring, [REDACTED] and [REDACTED]. It sort of was precipitated with a number of things, though. It wasn't one incident. In 1998, we started talking with Cornerstone Christian College [in Cape Town] about a partnership. The original thought is that we would do the economic development program with them, so all the faculty at that time were on a task

force. When we started thinking about distance education at Eastern, we created something called the distance education action group—[REDACTED] headed it up. It was all around the video classroom and the idea of international education. Umm... the Cornerstone partnership got up and running. The following year the World Vision partnership got up and running. So more and more, you look at all of this international work and then you look at our international economic development program that was surrounded by full-time faculty who didn't have much international experience. So the contrast between the two just seemed to get more glaring. Do you know what I'm saying?

I: Uh-huh. [child and parent enter rear of library room and quietly look through the stacks]

P: I think it was in 1999 when the President came back from one of the World Vision meetings with a vision to create an international school. He already had it in his head that he was going to create the Campolo School of Urban Work—I forget what the name was back then—and he wanted to create an international school, but he had to wait until [REDACTED] returned from his Kenya sabbatical, which he left in June of '99 and got back in December of '99. So SILD wasn't created until early 2000 and not officially on the books until the fiscal year, July 2000. So, [clears throat] the intent was that international development would be in the international school because the thinking was that World Vision would want to send people to it, etc. etc. etc. Well, World Vision wanted to create their own animal, and so the actual program with World Vision is not the economic development program. It is a hybrid of nonprofit management with some courses that have the flavor of our economic development program—poverty and development being one, cross-cultural skills being another.

I: Can you clarify your role in the redesign process?

P: Let's see, trying to think of the timing of things [looks up into space]. The World Vision partnership came into existence, and at that time we already knew it would be run separately from the graduate college. There were concerns with the graduate dean and her associate at the time being able to pull it off [voice raises, then trails off] and get it off the ground. And, the president wasn't willing for it to not get off the ground. So, I was appointed as the director of

international partnerships at that time, but again with the expectation that in the coming months when [REDACTED] returned from sabbatical, this new international school would be created and the economic development program put in that. Now, I was just finishing up as a student in the program when [REDACTED] convened a taskforce. The president said he wanted very clearly three things: a shorter program that required internationals to have less time on the campus, higher enrollment rates and higher graduation rates. And some of those issues were around his belief that [REDACTED] had done research in the late 80s and early 90s to show that only 50% of our students were returning home. I don't know where that research report is, but that was the start of looking at our economic development program. Are we making our goal if only half of the students return home to do the work that we've trained them to do? So, those were his major criteria in making us revamp the program. Making it shorter—our initial primary target markets were international students, furloughing missionaries who could only take a year off. The last group were the young idealists. They weren't large on the radar. It's only been in the last couple of years that we wanted to beef that focus up, and it was when more and more colleges were doing study abroad. There was a movement in the states about international interests, and that's when it became a hot topic for Eastern to focus on the young idealists.

I: Can you describe what the redesign process looked like?

P: [Sigh] Yeah... we decided we were going to take one year off from enrolling new students, so I think when we actually started the redesign [clears throat]... I have to refresh my mind on dates... it might be August of 2000, we [pauses]... the taskforce was created and the three people charged with it were myself, [REDACTED] and [REDACTED]. [REDACTED] wanted us to review [looks down at personal notes] the economic development program to assess strengths and weaknesses, propose one to three scenarios for reinventing or terminating it with pros and cons for each, devise transition steps for where we were – and how we were going to get all the current students through the current program, which was not a ton of people – uh, to the new structure, and a timetable. [Sigh] It took about 6 – 9 months of research. This task force include about six other people, and some are in our notes. [REDACTED], who is an alumni of the program, [REDACTED], who was a student in the program at the time and wound up being my research assistant and did that fifty page paper on the curriculum, under [REDACTED]'s

guidance. And that's in that binder that you have. Umm [pauses]... I can't remember who else was involved. I remember there being a large group of people around the table [laughs], and then everybody had their different pieces to do. Uhh, gosh [pauses]... Somewhere I actually documented timelines for each of the steps. That fall Jes Smith did the evaluation of market research and the curriculum review. Somewhere in that fall, perhaps early spring, we conducted a focus group with NGO leaders. We had already done—when we started tinkering with the idea of economic development education going into distance modality we had already done focus groups—we brought in an outside person to conduct focus groups for international students, all the students in this program, to determine, “if this program were delivered in a hybrid format or using some form of distance education curriculum, would that have worked for you in the country that you were?” So that part was already done. For the focus groups we brought in an outside person. Myself and [REDACTED] were not in the room. We did not show them a copy of the existing curriculum. They just walked in the door, and they were asked, “If you were to hire a graduate of an economic development program, what would you expect them to know and do?” And so, for two days this group laid out everything and I think there were six or seven people who participated in that two days. [clears throat] And then the person who ran the focus groups culled all the information together, and the last two hours [REDACTED] and I stepped back in and we showed them the curriculum and they matched up what their thinking was [illustrates connections by moving hands in space] and agreed on about 75% of our courses already. [Takes deep breath] That's... that, and we did a focus group with a very vocal, active and passionate group of international students who wanted to care very deeply—[REDACTED], [REDACTED], [REDACTED]—we did a focus group with them about what they felt was lacking. That's when we decided that the Michael Todaro textbook had to get added back in. The advocacy course. They felt we were doing too much micro when they were in the program, and the advocacy course was one of the recommendations of the NGO leader focus group as well. So we gleaned that for content. We also got from the NGO leaders information on the modality because that was a big issue. We were trying to look at what we were teaching and how we were delivering it. [17:50]

I: You are already leading to where I was next going, which was the outcomes of the study and taskforce./ I have reviewed the documents, in a cursory manner, and I came up with this list of

the path of action that came out of it, and I wanted to put it before you and see if you would be in agreement that these were the primary outcomes from that time.

P: [Initially silent while reading through a one-page listing of seven outcomes]. Now, number 1.2.1 was already decided. [reads out loud 1.2.1].

I: When had that been decided?

P: Uh [pauses, thinks out loud]... World Vision '99. By the fall of '99 I believe the Campolo School for Social Change was already created. [REDACTED] got back from sabbatical December of '99, and [REDACTED] in January of 2000 asked him to be the new Dean of the School of International Leadership and Development. In March of 2000, [REDACTED] asked [REDACTED] to be the Dean of Arts and Sciences. July of 2001, SILD was formally created on Eastern's books, i.e. in Eastern's budget system [laughs], which really is the crux of where we begin and end. So, this part of separating the programs was not even something that we were to decide. It was already decided. Here's the international. Is there enough meat to this? Are there enough students for this? Is our reputation solid to keep going with it? So [REDACTED]'s taskforce request was to determine -- if we continue going with this, what should it look like in the future. So number one had already been done.

I: Had that decision been appropriated with the split at that time, or did its implementation come later?

P: Yeah, they were already, by August of 2000, they would have already been split because it would have been the new fiscal year, which would have reflected those split budget realities. It was not easy because it came down to resources. You need to remember that historically, each individual program budget did not control financial aid or marketing. So [REDACTED] and the graduate marketing department controlled the marketing dollars and financial aid apportionment for what would go with urban and what would go with international. So [REDACTED] [REDACTED] expressed his desire to separate the programs, but left it to [REDACTED] and [REDACTED] [REDACTED] [smiles] --you'll see in the documents of the time the phrase keeps coming up, 'divide up

the baby” – [clears throat] and it was messy. There were issues about who would get more dollars from [REDACTED]’s pot. We wanted it to go by ratio of students, and at that time there were more international students than there were urban [sigh]. It did not go that way. I think [REDACTED] [REDACTED] settled with us walking away with \$80,000 in financial aid, which wasn’t much. So, that’s the one thing you’ll want to go back and look at. Historical budgets, you’ll need to look at marketing budgets and financial aid budgets separate from operations, because they weren’t included back then. It wasn’t until [REDACTED] that we fought to get our marketing money and our financial aid dollars put in our departmental budgets. [22:25]

I: That’s helpful. Thank you.

P: Umm. I lost track of the question.

I: I was asking for the outcomes to the process, and you suggested that number one preceded the process.

P: Yeah, number one was already decided. [reads 1.2.2 out loud and nods affirmatively]. Yep. [reads 1.2.3 out loud and nods affirmatively]. Yep. [reads 1.2.4 out loud and nods affirmatively]. Uh-huh. [scribbles on the sheet]. I don’t recall “c” and “d” being anywhere on our [sighs]... [REDACTED] always wanted case studies, but I don’t recall it being a part of our full-fledged outcome. [reads 1.2.5 out loud and nods affirmatively]. Uh-huh. Okay, and the program started—I have trouble with the fiscal years. Now fiscal ’02 is ’01 and ’02, correct?

I: Uh-huh.

P: September 11th attacks. Yes, you’re right, fiscal 03—wow. [reads 1.2.6 out loud and nods affirmatively]. Yes. [reads 1.2.7 out loud, mumbling; shakes head “no” and looks up at me]. That’s always been an idea. It wasn’t a stated outcome, I don’t think, for the redesign [pauses], mainly because the original concept for SILD was going to be a school that ran exactly like SPS with no full time faculty. So, while that was a desire, without any full-time faculty to have part of their load research, SILD was not going to mandate it of the business faculty, of the sociology

faculty. So I would put a question mark next to that [marks sheet next to 1.2.7 with question mark] and a question mark next to this [marks sheet next to 1.2.4 b and c with question mark]. Number one was already done [writes "NO" next to 1.2.1]. [25:41]

I: Great. Now I will hang on to that so that when I transcribe I can make reference to your markings.

P: Oh, that's fine.

I: If you could take another look, could you give me a quick assessment of whether you think the activities since then have matched with those outcomes. I think you've already hinted at perhaps why some haven't. Does anything jump out at you in terms of, "yes, we have accomplished this," or "no, we haven't".

P: Uh-huh. [after pause] We did some things such as having the alumni coordinator role [takes deep breath]... uh, the first person we got to do that was paid part time and really wanted to turn it into a communications role so her focus was on newsletters, which was helpful. It just never got the alumni coordinating network off the ground. Then that role passed to the director that came in, [REDACTED]. Um, we all like the idea, we just don't know how to implement the idea of an alumni group that recruits for us. And the main function we were thinking of -- when you get an Asian development conference that comes up, instead of flying one of us there, let's fly [REDACTED] whose in Asia. Well the question always was, "how do we compensate him?" "How do we pay for his ticket?" Again, back in those days we did not have the budget flexibility that we have now, so I can promise Lindy a refund on his airline ticket, but there is no guarantee I can get our finance office to honor that promise. Today is a very different day in the way we handle finances.

I: Different, meaning improved?

P: Oh [shaking head affirmatively], dramatically. Dramatically. [pauses] Historically, departments don't get a lot of control. We have something very different than what undergrad

has to deal with when they are told to do budgets. They don't have the flexibility to do things beyond what they submitted as approved expenses. In the graduate programs, because we follow our own revenue streams—I know what World Vision pays us—we've always had a bit more autonomy in the way we spend dollars. Historically, we operated like the undergraduate departments—that was one of the oddities of SILD. Half of my program—World Vision and Cornerstone—I knew my revenue and I had the freedom to spend without the finance office questioning it. The other half I had no clue of the revenue because we were not provided revenue reports on what used to be called traditional programs. Economic development came in as a traditionally run program, so all we were able to say was, "here are the expenses we need." We never knew what the revenues were and we had no flexibility when something came up. [pauses] Yeah, uh, alumni. Had one person, then it switched to [REDACTED], and she did a pretty good job with it, but then she wanted to pass it on to—I can't remember if it was [REDACTED] at that time. She really wanted someone else to handle it because it was a lot of staying in touch and keeping up with alumni, so I think for a spell [REDACTED] had it until we hired Jen after she graduated in June 2003. No one's really wanted it. Database is fine—that's easy enough to do, but that regular, ongoing communication—we do it informally, [REDACTED] and I do a lot of it informally because we knew a lot of the students, but coming up with a systematic way of garnering their involvement in recruiting has always been—we just never got there.

I: Why do you think nobody wants it?

P: [sighs] I don't know. I don't know. [pauses] I think to many of those people, alumni would have been strangers.

[a parent and child walk into the rear of the room; another adult enters the opposite side, then promptly leaves and re-enters behind me].

I: Do you think you gravitated to it because you knew a lot of the alumni?

P: I knew some. I knew some, and I knew others by reputation. I had heard [REDACTED] referenced around our campus for years. I think we've gotten better, at least in keeping them in the loop.

With the communications and with ■■■, four times a year the alums hear from us, and they like that—um—and still when you look at our admissions lists, alumni count as our number one referral generator. [31:15]

I: Was there a timeline or a plan of evaluation that was either stated or implied from the process for having accomplished all of these activities?

P: Well, some of them are determined themselves, like the marketing plan for the start-up year. That had to have happened obviously for the start-up year. For the others, no, it was a matter of whether we were free to make hires—in the sense of the director role and in the sense of the alumni network. There was one or two times during this period where we had hiring freezes in the post-9/11 environment. Uh, I had a plan in for every degree program in SLD, every five years would get a thorough review. That's not required by the Penn Department of Education, but it's for our own good. And for this program, at least for the first three years, students did an annual evaluation, and those are on the server, I think in a file called "evaluation" and then "economic development". And so you'll have cohort one, which was six students. Cohort two, it was nineteen students. And I forget what cohort three was. [33:00]

I: Good, that's very helpful.

P: And they assessed things like the curriculum, the communication from within SILD, the services of the greater university such as financial aid.

I: Now is that something that you triggered, or is that automatic. Now that you're no longer in that position is that an automatic process, or will your replacement need to ensure this happens on a regular basis?

P: Well, it should have been [pauses]... I did it the first three years. I don't know if ■■■ did it last year, which would have been year four. Uh, and it should be done on an annual basis in my opinion.

I: Were the appropriate staff hired, trained and retained, or have they continued to be the turnover challenges that plagued the program in the nineties?

P: Yeah. [sighs and then a deep breath] Let's see. [looks off to the right] We started with me [pause], and then because of the funds from the World Vision program, we had the funds to hire an assistant for me. We hired someone right out of college, who lasted a year and then went back to grad school. We hired another person out of college and she lasted a year and decided she wanted to do urban work and moved to ██████████ department. And then we hired ██████████, which I think was 2003, and she has stayed. We worked a lot with grad assistants in the early years and undergrads. ██████████ was with me all four years of her undergrad program. And then we hired her after graduation. ██████████ was our first hire after the admin support. I don't remember what year that was—maybe six years ago—and he was part-time to start with, but when some of the World Vision and Cornerstone stuff hit, and we made changes to the ec dev program—you know that's what he handles. We got to the point with the World Vision stuff that we brought in ██████████. One thing we weren't approved to do until 2002 was to hire full-time faculty. At that point, ██████████ was our first and only faculty for awhile, but we used—██████████ actually approved a system where we could call "our" faculty those from other departments who taught for us. This was how we developed our curriculum, by garnering other people. ██████████ left two years later. ██████████ was gone. I don't remember the years for all of these—maybe 2003?

[person wanders in room and browses stacks beside us... leaves after a few minutes]

I: So ██████████ was not faculty?

P: No, she was admin director.

I: And how long was she...

P: Administrative role, economic development, two years. She was replaced by a faculty director, mainly because at that point ██████████ had left. So we wound up having three grad

programs running and at one point we had no faculty and no directors. I'm trying to get the chronology straight for you. I printed it out on paper.

I: Okay, that will be very helpful.

P: The chronology is important. When I did a research paper on this for my program, you have to take a look at what was happening in the at-large university. There were organizational shifts every year [clears throat].

I: So, the entire university was in constant change.

P: Well, for example, the first year that SILD existed, the undergrad business department was in our department and part of that was that the business department wanted to stay close to the international development program and to the World Vision Pathways program. So [REDACTED] was chair at that time, but that lasted just one year until [REDACTED] left to become a part of the Campolo School and his replacement, [REDACTED], didn't like the undergrad business department being in SILD because it pulled it away from the, uh, what do you call that structure? [pause, then sigh of frustration trying to recall, talking to self] I can't remember the name. Sorry, I'm drawing a blank – division [with emphasis]. He didn't like it being pulled out of the division structure because he was division chair. So, the following year [REDACTED] moved it back into the Arts and Sciences, and he was Dean of both so things got moved around. It was fine. It was fine. Most of the faculty that wanted to stay part of it remained part of it anyway.

I: You mentioned earlier about how the resource structure changed during the course of the program, and I'm wondering if you can recall about when that was. You don't need to give a specific year, but maybe you can give me an indication of when that occurred?

P: You mean when financial aid changed?

I: The whole thing, where you said, "It's much better now than it used to be". When did that transition occur?

P: I would say just before and when [REDACTED] was there. When was that [motions hands expressively], 2003? [REDACTED] was really pushing the finance piece, and it got him into trouble. It was very hard in SILD because we had programs that ran on two different systems. And so doing our budgets was challenging not knowing our full revenues. [sighs] Yeah, it was a challenge. [41:28]

I: Do you have a sense of from then till now the changes have met with budgetary expectations? Did you spend appropriately? Did you get the amount of resources you expected to utilize for the changes?

P: Well, we weren't really getting them from anywhere. The world vision stuff helped carry the rest of this in the early years.

I: Since they had to be self-generated...

P: Yeah. Uh [pauses], in the first five years that I worked at Eastern, I don't recall getting very accurate expense reports. Um, we received moneys from two different people I recall, and then we could never find it in our revenue stream. There was one check from [REDACTED] for ten thousand, that went missing, I think, for eighteen months. [REDACTED], [REDACTED] and I finally tracked it down. So we kept shadow books using Quicken. By my calculations, and in my old budgets I used to put everything including employee benefits packages, by my calculations we did still turn back money to the university on an annual basis because we didn't have a lot of staff in the early years and we had high amounts of World Vision revenue. So by my calculations, and I think I gave these reports to [REDACTED]—I don't know if I still have them, one year I think was about \$80,000 surplus. One year was \$66,000. I think one year was \$78,000.

I: But you did not have that same sense of comfort or communication from finance.

P: No [sighs]. No.

I: Did you hear anything to the contrary?

P: No. No. They said we were fine. And whenever I would talk with [REDACTED] about SLD, you know we would have meetings and I would say, “Do you want me to bring down things to view?”. He said to me, “You know what? You guys are so small, as long as the final ultimate revenue for all of your programs exceeds your final ultimate expense for all programs [laughs], I don’t care [continued laughter]. I like [REDACTED] [more laughter]. Now [REDACTED] [smiling] does not manage that way [more laughter]. So when [REDACTED] stepped in 2003 or 2004 with [REDACTED], [smiling] we had to tighten our ship [laughter] because she traces everything down to paper clips and post-it notes, and I appreciate it. She takes it, I guess from Lydia who used to do the nonprofit program, and she would take it down to every detail.

I: It sounds to me that in both scenarios, there’s a requirement on yourself, or the school administrator, to handle an awful lot of detail that might not be expected of a leader, firstly because you had to create your own system, and secondly because the rules changed and there was a higher level of accountability from external sources.

P: Uh-huh. Including the partners.

I: Yeah. [pauses] One of the changes that, uh... it seems to me one of the things that was critical to making changes was to address the needs of target populations, you know, to increase enrollment. Is your assessment that the program satisfactorily achieved those objectives?

[45:40]

P: Yeah. If you just look at the campus program I would say, “no”. Now this would be interesting, and I don’t know if we have all of this historically documented. [REDACTED] and I have commented that there is a cycle to economic development campus, and we don’t know why the rhyme or rhythm. But if you look at eighteen years, in the early years it was tons of internationals, then it went through this phase of tons of missionaries, then it went through this phase of tons of young idealists with no experience. And you know these are all about two or three year phases. The problem is that every time the faculty would change the curriculum, they

sea would change. I remember it. I was in the program for a three year period where my first year was lots of internationals—they all graduated. My second year was lots of missionaries, and they're the ones I graduated with. I don't know why that is? It could be anything from the currency in their own countries devaluing. We used to get lots of Ghanaians. A couple of years ago the Ghanaian economy took a hit. By like 60% their currency devalued. We no longer get Ghanaians. 9/11. I felt really bad because we had a recruiter I felt really highly of, our first recruiter in this newly designed program. She did everything right. She implemented everything well. She was articulate. Her first cohort was six students. Why? It was nine months after the 9/11 attacks hit. The United States government threw up its borders. Yeah [stares into space].

I: How about the other programs? You mentioned campus. How about overseas?

P: We knew last year when we decided to start our own cohorts overseas that we would be poaching. Because [REDACTED] says, "we know you can't come here because of the Visa. How about our overseas cohorts?" I was quite surprised at how small the MBA numbers were for overseas, however the MBA requires far more to get into it. It's those four foundation courses and that GMAT exam. I just talked to two of my students at Cornerstone this morning. They just graduated and they want to be in our July cohorts. They can probably get in because they want to join the MA in International Development. If they wanted to get into the MBA they couldn't do it, because they need to take the foundation courses and the GMATs, which takes prep work. The GMAT is not an easy exam, especially for internationals. So, it's just a longer lead time. We had a mediocre enrollment this past March, but that's why we designed the program in the early years so that they're sharing classes. So you only feel the low enrollments for one class because in their other classes they are sitting in with international development students. We designed it so that in the early years when we knew we might be lean, we wouldn't take too much of a financial hit. I hope they're still running the program that way.

I: It sounds to me that the MA in international development program idea was a brilliant way to expand the program.

P: [Laughs and smiles]

I: By your smiles, I'm guessing it was your idea.

P: No, no, no. I wouldn't lay claim to it. [REDACTED], [REDACTED], [REDACTED]. The problem is that all these students who sign up for the MS and start doing well, line up at your door and want to switch into the MBA. The problem is that they have now missed the sequence because the MBA first semester is a required MBA course—I can't remember which one. We didn't like that you had two courses that were nearly identical and you're selling one because it's easier. That's no way to... so we decided to go full-blown different. Let the MA in international development get its own legs about it. You now have the opportunity to do what you want with the MBA. For years we have heard from Opportunity and other high end microfinance organizations, "there is no microfinance MBA in the world." So one of the notes I left for [REDACTED] is, once these programs get on their legs, why don't you look at doing a full-blown microfinance MBA?" Again, it's about the target markets. The program has always gotten the pastors, social workers, etc. who couldn't cut it once they got into the MBA courses. So all of the faculty felt the pressure to water it down for these students. I love our faculty for being that sensitive, but it doesn't do anything for the university's reputation for putting out a credible Master of Business Administration. So now you have your MA—let that be your really good theology degree where you'll do your theological thinking. Let the MBA be that, but also be the place where you do really good finance, really good accounting, really strong economics. [with passion] It's a really tough world out there. We've been in existence 22 years. Why is the world still poor? Why is it poorer now that it was 22 years ago? If we're making a difference, then why is the world poor? That's what keeps me going with this. I'm not going to stop [smiling] until we see something change [stated with passion]. Ugh... anyway.

I: Well, I think the MA in international development program also helped with what I saw in the documents were seemingly competing demands from the focus groups. Some wanted much more finance. Others wanted to get rid of the finance completely.

P: Umm. But again it's that different flavor student.

I: And the NGOs that were surveyed said the third highest need was finance.

P: And it's still the cry of organizations today, but when you ask the microfinance people at World Vision, "why don't you send your finance people to our MBA in economic development?", they don't think it is strong enough financially. They'd rather have them go to a Harvard, where they know they are going to get serious financial training, because these country directors are handling six million dollar USAID budget. World Vision Malawi, six million bucks passing through his hands. Somebody in that office better know how to handle serious finances. [sighs loudly].

I: And they better also be people of character...

P: ...who aren't embezzling serious finances.

I: ...which goes to...

P: ...which is why, theoretically, our MBA in economic development should be the best—■■■■ used to say, "best-kept secret. The MBA is the best kept secret in the world of development", because it is so desperately what the world needs. But we're doing something, part of it may be the people we attract. ■■■■ comes—love him—he's an anthropologist. ■■■■ I masters degree was in international development. She doesn't have a PhD. ■■■■—urban focus.

I: Last question. I mentioned student input into the program and the things they had wanted. Is your assessment that the students have found the changes to be helpful? Do they seem more satisfied now than they were?

P: That's hard, um, because of the way it's delivered now. They're not around long enough to see the changes. So they are around for one year, then off to the field semester. They don't check back with us to say, "hey" did they take my input. If it were a traditional graduate program where they were around three years... This program was created in such a way that the students aren't around long enough to see the change. We also got to a point where you need to

be careful. When you look at the three year evaluations, cohort one says the program should be “x”. Cohort two says the program should be “y”. Cohort three says the program should be “x”. And I got to the point of saying we can’t keep swinging too much, especially when we’re seeing a younger, inexperienced group of students. What basis do they have to say, “we want to learn this, we don’t want to learn finance.” One thing, if we want to start doing alumni research, and I’ve talked to [REDACTED]. While I appreciate his attempts to look at how many students returned to the field after they graduated, it needs to be a longitudinal study. Internationals will tell us point blank, “I will go get a job here for three to five years; pay off my debts; send money home; save up some money so that when I go home I can start the NGO I want to start; I can start the small business I want to start. So his only looked one year out, or wherever they were. We need to track them one year out, three years out, seven years out. If they’re still in the States after ten years, they’re probably not going back. But there are some that, at the five year mark they go back.

I: I also noticed looking through some of the documents that some of those who have remained have been champions...

P: Oh, yeah.

I: ...of one way or another, maybe as board members, or they’ve applied their interests in an American city, for example.

P: Yeah. [57:15]

I: Are there other matters that I missed or should have addressed in our conversation?

P: I cannot overemphasize the importance of this issue that we just discussed. For my first few years, everything was driven by that study. Everything was about making changes so our graduates would not remain here but return to their countries.

I: That’s important to know.

P: I also brought you some records and reports I printed off from my computer that might help you. So much was made, um, of the “glory years”, you know, the early days of the program. It kind of hurts my heart, because it’s not really true in all regards. [redacted] used to talk about all these international students and the energy of having them on campus, so I had [redacted] do a research report from CARS to track students and graduation rates from the outset of the program until [redacted] left, I think it was 2001. Oh, I see it goes through 2003. [sigh] It’s not good. Many students, it seems, came here but never graduated. [shows report, MBA & MS in economic development: % of students who were US citizens” that demonstrates this]. There was also a great sense that the program took a tumble when [redacted] stopped recruiting for our urban program, but this chart [shows chart “summary of graduates in the past 12 years”] shows there were never that many to begin with. I count 33 in the urban program.

I: Is that a cumulatively or a per year number?

P: What?

I: Is that the total of all time in the urban program?

P: Yes. Here are some other reports as well. A summary of enrollees in the program. A copy of the change proposal I completed for the administration that relates to this project. See, there are lots of charts and facts and figures. In order to examine enrollments, you need to consider contexts and growing competition—also self-poaching [sighs]. Are you interviewing [redacted] [redacted] about marketing and budgets? [redacted]? [redacted]? [redacted], too.

I: I haven’t completed my interview list yet, but these are good recommendations. You brought along some notes to guide your thoughts on this. May I have them?

P: [hesitates, then pushes the sheet across the table] Okay.

I: And may I take back the list I provided you with the notes you added to it?

P: [without speaking, complies by pushing the list across the table].

I: I really appreciate you taking the time while you're back on break. When do you return to Cape Town?

P: January 4th.

I: I hope you have a safe trip back there. I sense that once I have some more conversations, and I spend some time with the documents, we will probably need to have another conversation—or two, so I'll be in touch.

P: That's fine.

[END]

APPENDIX 17

Sample focus group transcript

Focus Group Interview 12A

January 26, 2007, 10:00-10:50 am

Interviewer (I): M. Thomas Ridington

Participants: (1) a former staff member of the MBA in economic development program; (2) a current staff member of the MBA in economic development program; (3) a current staff member of the MBA in economic development program.

I. Thank you very much for joining in this study of the economic development program during the past five years. You have before you a sheet which summarizes the recommendations that came from a study convened to plot the program's future. Please take a few moments to acquaint yourselves with the recommendations, and then I'll ask you some questions about them. [silence while they read] As you can see, there were seven primary recommendations from the advisory group that consulted with the school on the future of the economic development program. My first question is, "have the activities of the last five years matched those as identified in the plan?"

1. Well I would say that there were activities undertaken in pursuit of the first six recommendations. The effectiveness of them is a different issue, but there were activities for each of those. I'm not aware of any activity for item seven.

2. I would agree with that as well.

3. Yeah, same.

I. Well, let's go to the point of effectiveness, then. Among the first six items, highlight for me those that were changed from the original intent, and of those that were changed, suggest to me whether they were changed for the better, or not.

2. One number one, we've bounced back and forth in terms of how and where the urban and international concentrations would be offered. I think it would have been better if we were more stable with that. It seems to me that having them in one house would be good. Right now they are back in one house, and I think that is a good call.

I. Why do you think they went back and forth like that?

2. Best guess? Politics. Without naming names, different people had strong opinions about urban and international and they happened to be in different departments, and so it's like, "I want to do this", "I want to do that". They had good intentions, and I think there were some good reasons to put each program in a different school, but I think the Pa. Department of Education has it as one program, and they probably should have stayed together and been administered together.

I. Any other comments on number one?

1. I think politics was the large measure of the issue. There were some leaders who were not in agreement on things, primarily on the level of focus. The issue was, when the program was together, a program director whose interest was international would neglect the urban aspect and vice versa. The other issue was a debate at the time about whether urban issues are different than international issues since most of the developing world's population lives in cities. But are the urban issues there different from US urban issues? One of the pieces which captured this was that one program was working to produce grass roots organizers and the other was working to create policy makers and leaders.

I. So there was some philosophical basis for the decision that was made and unmade and then made again, but there was also politics, or from what I hear—personalities of the leaders who were involved in the process. Is that a correct assessment. [heads nod affirmatively] How about number two? Were there any changes to number two?

1. At that time there was only the intensive, campus version of the program, to which was added a semester overseas. There were a lot of issues that fed into this. In the past there were a lot of international students who had come and stayed, and so it was seen by some to be pointless to contribute to that since they didn't go back and work in their countries. So that was handled partly by this change, and partly by getting our international student office to do a better job tracking them, and also 9/11 got the government more involved with this issue.

[for Q 6]

So, this newer, intensive campus program was designed for missionaries working overseas and internationals. The argument was that if they are here a shorter period of time they won't put down roots. For those working overseas, they could come and do their classwork in one year during a furlough period. But I don't think those markets have been effectively borne out.

I. How about the last phrase in number two? Has that worked out?

2. There was certainly an openness to partnership and a seeking there, but I wouldn't say that any of the partners we established were indigenous per se. World Vision, ELIC and Habitat for Humanity are international. For a little while there was Cornerstone and SAICS, but they didn't really last.

1. The challenge there is not an ideal match as organizations go.

I. So SAICS and Cornerstone were not ideal partners. How so?

2. I don't really know about SAICS because it seemed to be on the way out when this was written. Do you know about SAICS? [looks at participant one]

1. I think SAICS was a non-credit training organization. Going to them with a graduate degree with too large a leap I believe. Funding was also an issue. These people would be glad to send students, but we needed to fund them, and we were counting on receiving tuition revenues.

2. Cornerstone seemed to be a money issue, and they didn't have that many students. It seemed like there was a desire to partner, but they had so many issues with funding challenges, then they changed leadership. [looking to participant one] I don't know if you know about that one either.

I. [looking at number three] Any other thoughts about Cornerstone?

3. It's pretty much hearsay. These were on the way out when I was joining the staff. What I heard about Cornerstone was funding. They had internal issues they had to deal with, and then the rates that we could charge them couldn't sustain our costs.

I. Okay. Let's move on to number three. Any changes? Was it successful?

2. There was a hire. [pauses] She had a practitioner, not an academic focus—I don't know if that was a part of the redesign. I think prior directors were shared with academic responsibilities.

1. Um. So the position was created, but the challenge was it wasn't necessarily the best fit for the person that was hired. And the Assistant Dean at the time went on leave just as the new director was hired, so there wasn't the time to properly guide the new direction in the directions she wanted. The director who was hired came in with her own ideas, which were not necessarily opposed, but she kind of got off on the wrong foot. The unclarity in the day to day of what this person was to do probably contributed to that person's dismissal.

I. So, what was the result of that person's separation. Was that position rehired? Was the position reconfigured? What was the institutional reaction to that person's departure?

2. It was reconfigured and rehired with an academic emphasis. I believe it was bolstered with a chair position so we could definitely get someone with an academic skill set to bring to it.

1. Yeah, and coincidental to that person leaving there were administrative changes made to make that kind of an academic appointment more workable.

I. What was the situation prior to this person's arrival?

1. It kind of relates back to question one in that there had been an interim director, but that person was an urban person. Under his direction, the international faded quite a bit while the urban was growing, so when we split them it was an opportunity to give more emphasis to the international. And as the program was redesigned into the more intensive model it really required more from a director, whereas the older, traditional model was reliant primarily on faculty. In the first year, there were only six students in the program, but that was the time frame after 9/11, which dramatically impacted recruiting for the following year.

I. So, suffice to say that in that particular position there has been continuous turnover and turbulence. Any ideas why?

1. I think one of the things it would be interesting to examine is that the university itself had gone through a number of restructurings during this time. I think that may have had an impact on this. For example, this program became a part of a new graduate college at the University. Then the graduate college was split into three entities, the School for Social Change, the School of Professional Studies and this one, the School of Leadership and Development. This design was to position for growth that didn't occur, due to a number of things, including 9/11 and the tech bubble.

2. So now the schools have come back together again, with restructuring and shifting around.

1. Yeah. So, players shifted, focus shifted, pieces shifted around. I don't think any is a direct cause, but it is indicative... even to where the offices shifted during that time from being on the St Davids campus to being at the National Christian Conference center to being now in Valley Forge.

2. And the administrative tasks being all over the place.

1. Not for the faint of heart. [laughter from all] Well, let's move on to the next one. I know none of you are faculty, but perhaps you have a quick comment.

2. I know that case studies have been a focus of ours in the last two years or so. I've heard that a lot from the faculty.

3. I think all of this is increased because of our two program directors, who are both academics and practitioners, so that has boosted this area in the last year and a half.

2. Yeah, in 2004 we had zero full-time faculty and now we have three.

1. I think that's important. We've always had faculty, but they've always been shared with undergraduate or other departments. And there were adjuncts and others who have been critical to the program, but we've never had our own full-time faculty until now.

1. Thank you. Now let's move on to the next point. Any reaction to point five? Do you have knowledge of increased marketing efforts at the kickoff of the program?

1. I guess I would question the distinction between marketing and recruiting. There was a kickoff concerning the new program, but recruiting was a challenge because of all this uncertainty in terms of place—where will I study, where will I be—those things that are important to students. There was turnover among the recruiters as well.

2. Was it 2004 or 2003 when SLD got its first full-time recruiter?

3. I came in 2003, so it was about that time.

1. Yeah, and there had been a recruiter in the graduate office who was focused on this, and that was a case of... well, she only had a dotted line relationship to SLD so she made a valiant effort, but was kind of stymied on some organizational things, and some personal things as well.

I.From what I've heard from conversations to this point is that some of the challenge also related to the dire nature of the circumstances of the program precipitating the intervention. You had alumni out there who had been great recruiters but now wondered if the program would survive, and that's likely to affect their enthusiasm. Did you find that to be the case?

1.Yeah, we actually fielded calls from people thinking the program had been closed. And part of it was [REDACTED] and [REDACTED] were the programs two founding fathers and both retired and for many people they were the program. For those who connected with the program through them, where would they go?

I.Okay. Point number six. Comments? Changes?

2.That one's an interesting one. There was someone... [looks to the right] Do you know how long that position was filled? That part-time position? It couldn't have been a whole year.

1.I don't think it was quite a year.

2.There was someone who was hired part-time to track down and communicate with the alumni. From what I saw it looked like everything was happening, but that person did not continue on—for whatever reason I'm not aware. Then after that there was no longer a formal position. After that, I believe, it was added to the director's role at the time. So when the international director came in it was added to her job description. And when that person left, it fell to the marketing person, uh, almost by default. So there really hasn't been an intentional... no I don't want to say that because we have been intentional. It's just that there hasn't been someone whose focus has been the alumni since that one person who lasted less than a year.

1.And I think what happened there is that the person coming in expected things to be in place that weren't and so it was a shock to her. She didn't realize she was going to build this from the ground. And then there was conflict between [REDACTED] and the Assistant Dean, and it was sort of an oil and water situation. And I think the point made before about the program being in crisis played out here with an urgency to get students now, which differed from that person's

orientation to make friends for the long term. We needed results and we needed them now, to build the program. You know the idea was that the revamped program would have 25 students a year, and there was only 6, then there was 11, and eventually it ramped back up to that. I guess there was the expectation that there'd be pent-up demand out there, but when the program started 20 short that put on a lot of pressure [laughs].

I. What happened after that person's departure? How was this recommendation fleshed out afterward?

2. At the time, it just went from a person doing it to part of the director's role.

I. The director of what?

2. The director of international economic development.

1. It was an odd thing, but I guess the thinking was—you don't have as many students as we expected, so you must have time to do this.

I. And was that a successful move?

1. Hard to tell. That person was not with us for long. Looking back on it, I think the alumni role was probably more within that person's skill set than directing a program.

I. So after that person's departure, how was the alumni piece handled?

2. It's sort of interesting. When I started full-time in 2004, I was working with this director at the time, and she like to divvy out responsibilities. Even though she was director and alumni coordinator, she assigned all alumni work to me. So when she departed it made sense for me to take it on since I was doing it anyway. It was never really formalized. It just kind of happened that way.

1. So, it transitioned to your position.

2. Yeah.

1. Is it still there, or has it transitioned again?

2. It has partially transitioned again, yeah. It was always a stressor because I was hired with a full-time job to which it was added. Recently it went back to a faculty member who carries a full teaching load but doesn't have any teaching responsibilities. She seems really excited about it and wants to take it on, but we're still hashing out details. I think we may run into trouble again if we're not intentional. As a faculty member, she's excited about strategy and communication, but this area requires administration of names and addresses and the basics that are a lot less exciting. The person coming after her will be reliant on this. It looks like this may no longer be one position. We're hiring a part-time person just to do database work.

1. Do you think this alumni piece was ever integrated into the rest of SLD?

2. Yes and no. It was always "they need to be separate" and yet at the same time, "they're our greatest source of students". So, yes and no.

3. From the perspective of somebody who came in after all the flux and watching her [REDACTED] [REDACTED] plate on a day to day basis and all the flux there, there's always been a persistent question, "what to do with the alumni?" "what strategy to use?" but nobody has really given it the time to think about it. It's always been, "let's do this" and "let's do that", and then some new priority would come through, and it would be "let's take care of them tomorrow". I think that has been the trend. Something else always takes priority over the alumni. It's always in the backs of all our minds, but it's never our first priority.

1. That's interesting. It's the tyranny between the strategic, the tactical and the urgent. So we know that we get our best leads, meaning greatest quantity of leads turned into students, from our

alumni. But the objective of having a certain number of students in the class this fall drives us to look for them elsewhere.

2. That was certainly my case. If I had a magazine to get out, anything with a deadline, that took precedence over entering the data on the most recent graduating class.

I. So if you know if something is really strategic, in fact has been identified as one of the seven building blocks to a successful future, how do you ensure that it gets done?

1. I think letting the people know it is one of the building blocks. I was the director of administration for SLD and I've never seen these before.

I. That's an important point.

1. Um, if the team doesn't know the strategy or the plan... well, it's important the team know the strategy. [laughs]

2. I've never seen this laid out like this before.

[for Q 3]

I. Well, if you are not aware of these, probably the balance of my prepared questions are futile. For example, you would probably not be aware of whether there was a timeline for completion.

1. No.

I. Or an evaluation plan...

2. No not really.

1. Knowing [REDACTED] there probably was, but I think that's a part of the management or leadership challenge. I may have received this document and not read it all, but why is it not brought up in

a team meeting and said, “okay guys it’s the beginning of the year—where do we stand on these things?” It needs to be put out there on a regular basis to remind us of our objectives.

I. Well, that’s very helpful. I’m glad that surfaced. We are one minute over time. I just want to conclude with this in our final moments. On balance, do you think this was a well-devised plan? Is it pointing the program in a proper direction? Or have events, happenings in the last five years caused you to think, perhaps not?

2.[after a long pause] Beyond number seven, which I never heard of, it seems like they are all good ideas. Many of the things we have done coincide with this and the program has progressed in the last five years, so I guess it was a good direction. I just never realized we were intentionally trying to satisfy these six or seven points.

1. Um, yeah, I think the plan as designed here is a very good one and is moving in the right direction. The focusing of the program to an intensive year with a semester overseas—the flaw that I saw with that was its orientation. The cross-cultural training aspect occurs at the end when you are in the field, but for someone coming here from overseas, they need the cross-cultural up front. Another issue with the intensive program is that its costs were squeezed from two years to one. So the cost is the same, but now you have to come up with it in only one year. So, where does that limit people? For those internationals who want to come, where does that defeat their purpose? And where does it create a market?

[for Q 6]

As I see the students who are here now, they are graduates of Christian colleges who have this justice focus and want to go out and save the world. They’ve already been primed for this and now we’re going to give them strategic, on-the-ground training and go out and do. So, I think the students in the program look different than intended, but still going through this plan is a good thing.

3.I agree that the plan is good and we've been moving to it, but we all know change is a part of our institution, and also responding to change out in the world. In the last few years, changes in the outside world have been enormous. So the changes may not look like what was intended in the plan, but we have continually responded to "what is" and we may have to do that most every year.

I.Well, thank you all for your time. This was a very rewarding experience for me.

[END]

APPENDIX 18

Eastern University MBA in economic development learning goals

Our graduates will be able to:

- 1 Theories of poverty: Describe the different theories regarding the causes and responses to poverty and how they inform policy and practice to address this challenge.
- 2 Economic Theories and Models of Development: Articulate the rise and evolution of economic development theories, political economy approaches, and macro and micro policies in development economics and their alternatives as applied to developing countries and how they affect development.
- 3 Justice: Describe the theory and evolution of the field and practice of advocacy and public policy
- 4 Research Design: Understand the concepts that underpin research design and analysis in development
- 5 Community Development: Articulate the theories, methods and practice of holistic community transformation
- 6 Cross-cultural skills: Articulate an understanding of the importance of cross-cultural dynamics
- 7 Leadership: Articulate the theories, methods and practice of effective leadership
- 8 Relief and Disaster Mitigation: Articulate the theory, insights, and basic tenets of disaster preparedness, mitigation and response to crisis and emergency situations
- 9 Sectors: Recognize the sectoral approaches in development, such as trade, finance, health, agriculture, and environment, and articulate in depth concepts in the sectors of articulate sectors of relief, microfinance and "business as mission."
- 10 Critical Thinking: Organize, assess, and evaluate, facets of issues and problems quickly and in a clear and concise manner in a way that gets at the fundamental assumptions and roots that underpin them; identify own biases and research and identify alternative or opposing viewpoints to inform this process; use these abilities to engage in effective problem solving and dialogue in a way that is committed to the Biblical notion of wisdom, truth seeking and building relationships.
- 11 MBA only International trade: Articulate the foundational theories of and the rationale for international trade
- 12 MBA only International finance: Articulate the mechanics, processes and the players in international financial markets and their effect on development.
- 13 Actors/Players: Identify the types of and specific actors, their importance and roles in development at the local, national, regional and international levels.
- 14 Program planning: Describe the wide range of planning models, options and tools used in development and use them to plan concrete projects and programs.
- 15 Project Management: Describe and articulate the basic approaches and areas of effective project management.
- 16 Fundraising: Write professional quality grant proposals and comprehend and engage effectively the process of fundraising.
- 17 Evaluation: Design an effective monitoring and evaluation process for development projects, including baseline studies.
- 18 Justice: Create advocacy plans for particular issues relating to development

- 19 Research Design: Use research design tools for enhancing development projects and advancing knowledge in the field.
- 20 Communication: Communicate effectively and persuasively, based on synthesis and critical analysis, both in writing and through verbal presentations and public speaking
- 21 Community development: Implement the theories, methods, and practice of holistic community transformation
- 22 Leadership: implement the theories, methods, and practice of effective leadership
- 23 Cross-cultural Skills: Operate effectively in cross-cultural settings
- 24 Relief and Disaster Mitigation: Coordinate efforts in disaster preparedness, mitigation and response to crisis and emergency situations
- 25 Organizational Finance and Budgeting: Create and manage all aspects of organizational finance and budgeting, including the use of accounting software
- 26 Marketing: Employ the theory and tools of the strategic marketing process used in profit and nonprofit sectors
- 27 MBA only Organizational Management: Articulate the key points of effective organizational management, including managing individual performance, facilitate work team effectiveness, management of conflict, and negotiating agreement and commitment.
- 28 MBA only Business Creation and Planning: Create an effective business plan for new businesses or to strengthen existing business and/or organizations
- 29 Personal Processes of Sanctification: Have a deeper understanding of and commitment to becoming more holy.
- 30 Belief and Practice: Have a deeper understanding of and commitment to the practice of their faith with a special emphasis on sharing the message of salvation, working for justice and serving the poor as per Christ's passion.
- 31 Theological Reflection: Be able to articulate their faith with a wide variety of developmental issues, especially poverty and spirituality